CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

I.S.B.N.

THESES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

National Library of Canada
Collections Development Branch

Canadian Theses on
Microfiche Service

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction du développement des collections

Service des thèses canadiennes
sur microfiche

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL-339 (r. 82/08)

Canada

0-315-19387-6

National Library of Canada
Canadian Theses Division
Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Division des thèses canadiennes

(39)

67295

PERMISSION TO MICROFILM — AUTORISATION DE MICROFILMER

- Please print or type — Écrire en lettres moulées ou dactylographier

Full Name of Author — Nom complet de l'auteur: James Alfred Gunn

Date of Birth — Date de naissance: Apr. 26, 1947	Country of Birth — Lieu de naissance: Canada

Permanent Address — Résidence fixe:
155 Carleton St.
New Glasgow, Nova Scotia
B2H 3K9

Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse: Job Satisfaction of Senior High School Principals and Their Perceptions of School Effectiveness, Their Leadership and Their Bases of Influence.

University — Université: University of Alberta

Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée: Ph. D.

Year this degree conferred — Année d'obtention de ce grade: 1984	Name of Supervisor — Nom du directeur de thèse: Dr. E. A. Holdaway

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

Date: June 15, 1984	Signature: James A. Gunn

NL-91 (4/77)

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

JOB SATISFACTION OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS, THEIR LEADERSHIP AND THEIR BASES OF INFLUENCE

by

© JAMES A. GUNN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1984

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR	James A. Gunn
TITLE OF THESIS	Job Satisfaction of Senior High School Principals and Their Perceptions of School Effectiveness, Their Leadership and Their Bases of Influence
DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED	Doctor of Philosophy
YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED	1984

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

This author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(Signed) James A. Gunn

PERMANENT ADDRESS:

155 Carleton Street
New Glasgow, Nova Scotia

DATED June 11 1984

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Job Satisfaction of Senior High School Principals and Their Perceptions of School Effectiveness, Their Leadership and Their Bases of Influence submitted by James A. Gunn in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

E.A. Holdaway
Supervisor

Don Massey

Eugene W. Ratsoy

K. Ward

D. Friesen

Cecil Miskel
External Examiner

Date 11 June 1984

ABSTRACT

Considerable research has been undertaken on the job satisfaction of employees or subordinates, but relatively little research has been conducted on the satisfaction of leaders in organizations. In the field of education, much more research has been directed toward the job satisfaction of teachers than to that of principals or other administrators. Possibly certain conditions or variables that affect the attitudes of school principals toward their work have been neglected. The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which the job satisfaction of high school principals is related to three variables which were considered to be of particular consequence to the leadership role of principals: perceived school effectiveness, effectiveness as a leader, and level of influence. The secondary purpose was to study the extent to which job satisfaction is related to individual characteristics of the principals and to organizational characteristics of the schools.

The study was designed as a non-experimental, descriptive study. Data collection was achieved by means of a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The questionnaire was mailed to all principals of senior high schools in Alberta (88 percent were returned). Ten principals were interviewed to obtain more insight into the context of the questionnaire responses. Various descriptive statistical techniques were used to analyse the statistical data, while content analysis and more qualitative techniques were used to analyse the written and oral responses.

Direct relationships were identified between the overall job

satisfaction of senior high school principals and their perceptions of their school's overall effectiveness, overall effectiveness as a leader, and overall level of influence. Several insights into the nature of the variables and the relationships among them were obtained. The facet "sense of accomplishment" was a key to understanding the nature of the relationships because it was related to numerous other facets of job satisfaction, it was the best predictor of overall job satisfaction, it was strongly related to perceptions of overall school effectiveness and overall leader effectiveness, and to numerous criteria of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. The facet "working relationships with teachers" was another important link between job satisfaction and perceptions of school and leader effectiveness. The factor "attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers" was an important source of job satisfaction (and dissatisfaction) and an important indicator of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness.

The principals identified six indicators of high school effectiveness. The most important of these were (1) satisfaction, morale or "spirit" of students and teachers and (2) academic achievement in post-secondary institutions. They identified the following important indicators of leader effectiveness: (1) working collegially with teachers (sharing leadership functions), (2) making decisions effectively, (3) demonstrating an interest in and concern for people, and (4) directing others to reach goals. The most important bases of influence for principals were (1) personal qualities and expertise and (2) ways of working with people to win trust and support.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I face the same difficulty that most students have faced, that of being unable to express their true sense of gratitude once they have realized their indebtedness to their teachers. To "acknowledge" my professors, and my family, seems to inadequately portray my feelings about their contributions to this thesis. Yet, I do acknowledge them, hoping that they may sense to some degree my deep appreciation and respect.

The members of my Advisory Committee, Dr. Holdaway, Dr. Ratsoy, Dr. Friesen, Dr. Ward and Dr. Massey, provided often needed guidance and encouragement. My advisor, Dr. Holdaway, contributed so much in his setting of standards, attention to detail, and his ability to organize but, more importantly, he provided encouragement through his enthusiasm, interest and caring. His comment, "Call or drop in anytime," was heard many times and was appreciated every time. In addition, Dr. Ratsoy contributed much through his questioning, conceptualizing and careful editing: his demand for a clear conceptual framework improved and strengthened several aspects of the study. Finally, Dr. Friesen's concern for and interest in high school students were refreshing when I felt so far removed from students and school-life.

I am deeply indebted to the high school principals of Alberta who completed the questionnaire and volunteered to be interviewed. This study was one of many in which they are "expected" to take part professionally, without a tangible reward for their efforts.

The contributions of my wife and our children are equally important and just as difficult to express adequately in words. They had to travel far from home and friends to make another home and new friends. Betty gave us a wonderful "home away from home," while working fulltime as a nurse to help finance my two years of study and our travels. Jamie, Nicole, Rick and Natalie brought us joy, as always, and we are very proud of their understanding and courage in facing unfamiliar circumstances.

I am surely among the most fortunate of students, husbands and fathers and I will be forever grateful.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

1 Overview of the Study 1

Justification for the Study 3

Practical Significance of the Study 6

Definitions 7

Research Questions 9

Assumptions 11

Limitations 11

Research Design 12

Data Collection and Analysis 13

Organization of the Thesis 15

2 Review of the Literature 16

Job Satisfaction 17

Definitions of Job Satisfaction 17

Job Satisfaction and Work Motivation 18

Theories of Job Satisfaction and/or Work Motivation 19

Cognitive theories of motivation 20

Vroom's theory of work motivation 22

Need-fulfillment theory 24

Discrepancy theory 25

Equity theory 25

Motivation-hygiene theory 26

Lawler's model of facet satisfaction 28

Locke's value theory 30

Chapter Page

Concluding statement 31

Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction 32

Role conflict and role ambiguity 33

Job stress and job burnout 38

Consequences of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction 41

Job Satisfaction of School Principals 42

School Effectiveness 46

Organizational Effectiveness 47

Assessing School Effectiveness 50

Practical assessment of effectiveness 52

Linking organizational effectiveness and school effectiveness assessment techniques . . 55

The Influence of Leaders 56

Definitions of Power and Influence 56

The Nature of Power or Influence 58

The Bases of Influence for Leaders 61

Concluding Statement 63

Leadership 64

The Concept of Leadership 64

Leader Effectiveness 66

Functions of Leadership 69

Principals as Effective Leaders 70

Summary 74

Conceptual Framework of the Study 75

The Nature of Job Satisfaction 75

Chapter Page

Relationships between Job Satisfaction and the Role Perceptions in the Study 77

3 Research Methodology 81

The Research Instruments 81

The Questionnaire 81

School and personal data 82

Job satisfaction 82

The rating scale 84

School effectiveness 84

Leader effectiveness 87

Principal's level of influence 87

Additional comments 89

Pilot test of questionnaire 89

The Interview Schedule 90

Semi-Structured Interviews 90

Design of the Interview Schedule 92

Data Collection 94

The Population 94

Distribution and Collection of Questionnaires . . 95

The Interview Sample 97

The Interview Process 97

Data Analysis 99

Statistical Analysis of the Questionnaire Data 99

Content Analysis of Written Responses from Questionnaires 102

Indicators of school effectiveness 102

Chapter Page

The additional comments 103

Validation procedures 104

Analysis of the Interview Data 105

Validity and Reliability 106

Validity of the Questionnaire Development and Data 106

Reliability of the Instruments in the Questionnaire 107

Validity of the Interview Schedule and Data . . . 108

Summary 109

4 Profile of the Respondents 112

Organizational Characteristics of the Schools . . . 112

School Setting 112

Type of School System 112

Grades in Schools 114

Number of Students and Professional Personnel . . 114

Number of students 114

Number of full-time equivalent teachers 114

Number of vice-principals 116

Number of department heads 116

Pupil-Teacher Ratios 116

Personal and Professional Characteristics of the Respondents 117

Sex of Respondents 117

Age 117

Years of Experience in Principalship 117

Years of experience in present position 119

Chapter Page

Years of experience in prior principalship . . 119

Total years of experience in principalships . . 119

Position Prior to Becoming a Principal 119

Long-term Career Aspirations 121

Post-Secondary Education 121

Years of post-secondary education 121

Graduate courses in educational administration 124

Present enrollment in educational administration courses 124

Profile of Principals in the Interview Sample . . . 124

Summary 126

5 Analysis of the Questionnaire Data 127

Relationships between Overall Job Satisfaction and Overall School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence 127

Overall Job Satisfaction 128

Overall School Effectiveness 128

Overall Leader Effectiveness 129

Overall Level of Influence 130

Relationships among Overall Job Satisfaction and Perceptions of the Role 131

Question 1 131

Question 2 132

Question 3 132

Other important relationships among the major variables 132

Relationships between Overall Job Satisfaction and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics 133

Chapter Page

Overall Job Satisfaction and School Setting . . . 133

Overall Job Satisfaction and Type of School System 134

Overall Job Satisfaction and Grades in School 135

Overall Job Satisfaction and Size of School . . . 135

Number of students 137

Number of full-time equivalent teachers 137

Number of vice-principals 137

Number of department heads 137

Summary 137

Overall Job Satisfaction and Age of Principals . 138

Overall Job Satisfaction and Years in Present Position 138

Overall Job Satisfaction and Graduate Courses Completed in Educational Administration 139

Predictors of the Major Variables 140

Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction 140

Predictors of Overall School Effectiveness . . . 143

Important indicators of school effectiveness 143

Predictors of Overall Leader Effectiveness . . . 150

Predictors of Overall Level of Influence 150

Relationships between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Selected Criteria or Bases of School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence 150

Relationships between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Criteria of School Effectiveness 153

Chapter Page

Relationships between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Criteria of Leader Effectiveness 155

Relationship between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Bases of Influence 156

Additional Comments 157

Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction 157

School Effectiveness 159

Principal Effectiveness 160

Level of Influence 160

Principal's Role 160

Other Comments 161

Summary 162

6 Analysis of the Interview Data 166

Greatest Sources of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction 166

Greatest Source of Job Satisfaction 166

Observations 168

Greatest Sources of Job Dissatisfaction 169

Observations 170

Sense of Accomplishment 171

Observations 172

The Meaning of Leadership 173

Observations 174

Comparison of Important Variables 175

Leader Effectiveness as an Indicator of School Effectiveness 176

Chapter Page

Job Satisfaction of Teachers, Staff Morale and Leader or School Effectiveness 177
  Summary 179
Important Bases of Influence 179
  Observations 180
Impressions 181
Summary 182
7 Discussion of the Findings and Conclusions 184
  Discussion and Conclusions 184
    Level of Overall Job Satisfaction 184
    Perceptions of Overall School Effectiveness . . . 185
    Perceptions of Overall Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence 185
    Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and Overall School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence 186
    Relationships between Overall Job Satisfaction and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics 187
      Personal characteristics 188
    The Nature of Overall Job Satisfaction 190
      Sense of accomplishment 190
      Other important predictors 193
      Greatest sources of job satisfaction 194
      Greatest sources of job dissatisfaction 196
      General conclusions 196
    Important Indicators of Overall School Effectiveness 198
      Concluding comment 202

Chapter Page

Important Indicators of Overall Leader Effectiveness 202

Important Bases of Influence 204

Relationships between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Selected Criteria or Bases of School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence 205

Facets of job satisfaction and criteria of school effectiveness 206

Facets of job satisfaction and criteria of leader effectiveness 207

Facets of job satisfaction and bases of influence 208

The Nature of the Relationships between Job Satisfaction and Each of the Major Variables . . 209

Summary 211

8 Summary and Implications 215

The Purpose of the Study 215

Research Methodology 216

Profile of the Respondents 218

Major Findings 219

Levels of Overall Job Satisfaction and Perceived Overall School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence . . . 219

Relationships among the Major Variables 220

Relationships between Overall Job Satisfaction and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics 220

Best Predictors of the Major Variables 221

Major Findings from the Interview Data 222

Sources of greatest job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction 222

Chapter Page

Sense of accomplishment as an administrator . . 223

Leadership 223

Most important bases of influence 223

Important Conclusions 224

Variables Related to Overall Job Satisfaction . . 224

The Nature of Overall Job Satisfaction 224

The Nature of the Relationships between Job Satisfaction and Perceptions of the Major Variables 225

Important Indicators of High School Effectiveness 226

Important Indicators of Leader Effectiveness . . 227

Important Bases of Influence 227

Implications 228

Implications for Theory and Research 228

General Impressions 232

Recommendation 1 234

Recommendation 2 234

Recommendation 3 234

Concluding Comments 235

BIBLIOGRAPHY 237

APPENDIX A. QUESTIONNAIRE 248

APPENDIX B. REQUEST FOR ENDORSEMENT BY SUPERINTENDENTS 263

APPENDIX C. COVERING LETTER TO PRINCIPALS, FOLLOW-UP LETTER AND POSTCARDS 265

APPENDIX D. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE 270

APPENDIX E. PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF RESPONSES RATING SATISFACTION WITH JOB FACETS AND CRITERIA OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS, LEADER EFFECTIVENESS AND LEVEL OF INFLUENCE 274

LIST OF TABLES

Table | Page
4.1 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Organizational Characteristics of Schools 113

4.2 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Number of Students and Professional Personnel in Schools 115

4.3 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Pupil-Teacher Ratios 116

4.4 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Age of Principals 117

4.5 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Years of Experience in Principalships 118

4.6 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Position Prior to Becoming a Principal 120

4.7 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Years as a Vice Principal 121

4.8 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Long-term Career Aspirations 122

4.9 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Characteristics of Post Secondary Education . . . 123

4.10 Frequency of Organizational Characteristics of Schools of Interview Sample 125

5.1 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Level of Overall Job Satisfaction 128

5.2 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Level of Overall School Effectiveness 129

5.3 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Level of Overall Leader Effectiveness 130

5.4 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Overall Level of Influence 130

5.5 Pearson Correlations between Overall Scores 131

5.6 Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by School Setting 134

Table Page

5.7 Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Type of School System 134

5.8 Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Grades in School 135

5.9 Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Size of School 136

5.10 Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Age of Principals 138

5.11 Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Years in Present Position 139

5.12 Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Graduate Courses Completed in Educational Administration 139

5.13 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Facet Satisfaction Items as Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction 141

5.14 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of School Effectiveness Items as Predictors of Overall School Effectiveness 144

5.15 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Important Indicators of School Effectiveness Chosen from the School Effectiveness Instrument . . . 145

5.16 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Other Important Indicators of School Effectiveness Identified by the Respondents 147

5.17 Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Important Indicators of School Effectiveness . . . 149

5.18 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Leader Effectiveness Items as Predictors of Overall Leader Effectiveness 151

5.19 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Bases of Influence as Predictors of Overall Level of Influence 152

5.20 Frequency of Comments Related to Major Variables and Principal's Role 158

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

2.1 Illustration of the Relationships between Job Satisfaction and the Role Perceptions in the Study 78

CHAPTER 1

Overview of the Study

The "quality of work life" in many organizations in western society is being eroded. Workers in these organizations cannot feel as secure as they once did in believing that they will always have a job, that they will automatically have pay increases and more fringe benefits, and that their work will not be altered by innovations such as computer technology. To help maintain or improve the quality of work life, those who study the attitudes and behaviors of workers in organizations should continue their search for ways to increase job satisfaction and reduce job dissatisfaction.

The quality of work life should be maintained or improved because it is important in its own right and because there is an implicit assumption that satisfied workers will perform better than dissatisfied workers (Bacharach and Mitchell, 1983:102). This assumption exists among leaders and managers of organizations in spite of the fact that research has not explicitly shown that job satisfaction leads to better performance (Locke, 1976). In fact, some theorists have suggested that the reverse relationship exists, that is productivity affects job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Future research may show that the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity is indirect and probably highly complex.

Many studies have been completed in the past four decades to assess the overall job satisfaction of employees in various types of organizations and satisfaction with certain facets of the job. Recently, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction have been studied indirectly in at least two important areas of work behavior research. Job stress (and burnout) and role perceptions (role ambiguity and role conflict) have attracted much attention because both researchers and practitioners are concerned about the negative consequences of these variables; job dissatisfaction is one of these consequences. While the study of job stress and of role ambiguity and role conflict progresses, it is important that the study of job satisfaction continues also. These studies should contribute jointly to the improvement of work life for employees.

Considerable research has been undertaken on the job satisfaction of employees or subordinates, but relatively little research has been done on the satisfaction of leaders in organizations. Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1981) and, more recently, Bacharach and Mitchell (1983) observed that in the field of education much more research has been directed toward the job satisfaction of teachers than to that of principals or other administrators. Consequently, the variables that have been examined, in various types of organizations including schools, seem to be related more to the job situations and work behavior of employees than to those of leaders of organizations. Possibly certain conditions or variables that affect the attitudes of persons in leadership positions toward their work have been neglected.

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which the job satisfaction of high school principals is related to three variables which were considered to be of particular consequence to the leadership role of principals: perceived school effectiveness, perceived effectiveness as a leader, and perceived level of influence. The secondary purpose was to study the extent to which job satisfaction is related to individual characteristics of the principals and to organizational characteristics of the schools. Individual characteristics were age, experience and formal education as an administrator, and sex: organizational characteristics were setting and size of school, grades in school, and type of school system.

The study was designed as a non-experimental, descriptive study. Data collection was done by means of a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The questionnaire was mailed to all principals of senior high schools in Alberta and ten principals were interviewed to obtain more insight into the context of the questionnaire responses. The data were analyzed using statistical techniques such as frequency distributions, correlations, and comparison of means.

This study was completed as part of a larger study of senior high school principals, conducted by Dr. E. A. Holdaway of the Department of Educational Administration, the University of Alberta.

Justification for the Study

As already noted, the variables that have been examined in the many studies of job satisfaction seem to be related more to the job situations and work behavior of the people at the lowest level of the organizational chart than to the ones at the top. In studies of the overall satisfaction of principals with their job and their satisfaction with various job facets, little or no attention has been directed to the principals' perceptions of their school's effectiveness, their effectiveness as a leader, and their level of influence. Justification for investigating the relationships between these role aspects and job satisfaction of principals was evident in the literature.

In his survey of the major findings with respect to causal factors in job satisfaction, Locke (1976:1319) found strong evidence that, among other variables, sense of achievement is related to job satisfaction. In the educational setting, Iannone (1973), Schmidt (1976) and Rice (1978) identified a sense of achievement as a source of job satisfaction for school principals. As an extension of this finding it seemed probable that the sense of achievement of principals is related to how effective they perceive their schools to be and how effective they perceive themselves to be as leaders. Also, because level of influence is an important aspect of leadership, it should be related to the sense of achievement of principals. Thus, for reasons discussed below, sense of achievement was viewed as a possible link between the job satisfaction of principals and their perceptions of the school's effectiveness, their effectiveness as a leader and their level of influence—a conceptual framework is presented at the end of Chapter 2.

Support for the assumption that the sense of achievement of principals is closely associated with the three perceptions of their role was obtained from the recent literature on school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. Many writers have described the leadership of principals as a major determinant of school effectiveness. In a recent review of the literature, Rutherford, Hord, and Huling (1983:7) found that "there were many proclamations in the literature about the importance of the principal to school improvement." School effectiveness seemed to be the "topic of the day" among district office personnel, school board members, and researchers in the field of educational administration, as is evident in the following statement by Hall and Rutherford (1983:55):

> Superintendents, policy makers, school boards and others often announce to principals that they are responsible for improving student achievement . . . and making the changes in their school that make them more effective.

Principals, especially those who have considerable professional expertise and training, are well aware that the effectiveness of their school is mainly their responsibility. They realize the importance of their instructional leadership function in making the school as effective as possible. Therefore, the sense of achievement experienced by principals is surely related to how effective they perceive their schools to be and how effective they perceive themselves to be as leaders.

Furthermore, the success or failure of principals as leaders of organizations is determined partly by their level of influence or power as a leader. According to Bossert et al. (1982:49), principals must establish and exercise influence, as well as authority, if they are to be strong instructional leaders. Principals can no longer depend upon only the legitimate power or authority of their office to be in control. Because principals learn through training and experience that a high level of influence is important in being an effective leader, their perception of their level of influence probably affects their sense of achievement which, in turn, affects their level of job satisfaction.

Practical Significance of the Study

The justification for this study given above is, in most respects, a theoretical justification explaining why the particular relationships were postulated for investigation. Although the practical significance of continuing the study of job satisfaction of workers was addressed in the introduction, the discussion to this point has not addressed directly the practical significance of this study.

Through its contribution to the literature and research on job satisfaction of principals, leader effectiveness of principals, and the bases of influence of principals, this study was expected to provide, in a practical sense, a better understanding of the role of high school principals and their perceptions of their role. It was also expected to provide insights into how the thoughts and emotions of high school principals are related to their perceptions of their role and the effectiveness of their school. This information might be of use to persons who aspire to become high school principals.

Also, the independent measurement of principals' perceptions of school effectiveness, of their effectiveness as a leader, and of their bases of influences were expected to provide information of a practical nature. The factors that best predict overall high school effectiveness and effectiveness as a leader, as perceived by high school principals, were identified, as were the bases from which they derive their greatest level of influence. This information was expected to have some practical significance for school board members and central office administrators who select and supervise high school principals.

Finally, information on how perceived leader effectiveness is related to personal and school-related variables should be of interest to those persons who must select and supervise high school principals. Assuming that a positive perception of effectiveness as a leader is an important characteristic of principals, school board members and central office administrators may appreciate having a better understanding of how this perception is related to personal and school-related variables.

Definitions

Job Satisfaction

Vroom's (1973:64) definition of job satisfaction—"a person's affective reactions to his total work role"—and the following definition by Locke (1976:1342) were chosen for this study:

> Job satisfaction may be viewed as the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values, providing these values are compatible with one's needs.

The operational definition of overall job satisfaction was the perceived overall job satisfaction, as rated by each respondent.

Facet Satisfaction

Lawler (1973:64) defined facet satisfaction as "people's affective reactions to particular aspects of their job." Some examples of facets or aspects of the job of principals are salary, working relationships with teachers, staff morale, relationships with the superintendent, and attitudes of parents toward the school.

School Effectiveness

School effectiveness is multi-dimensional and is identified using many criteria. Miskel, Fevurly, and Stewart (1979:98) described school effectiveness in the following statement:

> Perceived organizational effectiveness is the subjective evaluation of a school's productivity, adaptability, and flexibility. . . . In summary, effective schools are perceived to produce products and services in greater quantity, with better quality; to show flexibility: and to exhibit adaptability to a greater extent than less effective organizations.

This understanding of school effectiveness was used as a theoretical base on which to build a list of criteria of school effectiveness.

The operational definition of overall school effectiveness was the perceived overall effectiveness of their school, as rated by each respondent.

Leader Effectiveness

Stogdill (1974:12) defined leadership "in terms of its instrumental value for accomplishment of group goals and satisfaction of needs." Similarly, Burns (1978:19) defined leadership as

> leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations—the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations—of both leaders and followers.

These definitions formed a theoretical base on which to build a list of criteria to define the multidimensional concept of leader effectiveness.

The operational definition of overall leader effectiveness was the perceived overall effectiveness as a leader, as rated by each respondent.

Influence

Influence was defined as the ability to affect the thoughts, emotions, or actions of one or more other persons, based on personal resources as well as the authority of one's office.

The operational definition of level of influence was the perceived overall level of influence of the respondent.

Bases of Influence

The bases of influence or power defined by French and Raven (1959: 155)—reward, coercion, referent, legitimate, and expert—were chosen for this study.

Senior High School

A senior high school was defined as any secondary school which had enrolled in it Grade 10 and/or Grade 11 and/or Grade 12 pupils and which may also have enrolled in it Grade 7 and/or Grade 8 and/or Grade 9 pupils.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the development of the questionnaire, the analysis of the data and the discussion of the findings. The first three questions operationalize the relationships assumed between job satisfaction and perceptions of school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence. Question 4 describes the examination of relationships between job satisfaction and selected organizational characteristics of schools and personal characteristics of principals. The identification of the best predictors of each of the four major variables is operationalized in Questions 5 through 8, and the final three questions represent the examination of the relationships between selected facets of satisfaction and perceptions of selected criteria of each major variable.

1. To what extent is the overall job satisfaction of high school principals related to their perceptions of their school's overall effectiveness?

2. To what extent is the overall job satisfaction of high school principals related to their perception of their overall effectiveness as a leader?

3. To what extent is the overall job satisfaction of high school principals related to their perception of their overall level of influence?

4. To what extent is overall job satisfaction related to selected organizational characteristics of schools and selected personal characteristics of principals?

5. Which facets of job satisfaction are the best predictors of overall job satisfaction?

6. Which criteria of school effectiveness are the best predictors of overall school effectiveness?

7. Which criteria of leader effectiveness are the best predictors of overall leader effectiveness?

8. Which bases of influence contribute most to overall level of influence?

9. To what extent is satisfaction with selected facets of the job related to perceptions of selected criteria of school effectiveness?

10. To what extent is satisfaction with selected facets of the job related to perceptions of selected criteria of leader effectiveness?

11. To what extent is satisfaction with selected facets of the job related to perceptions of selected bases of influence?

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in this study:

1. an individual's job satisfaction can be measured by means of a questionnaire;

2. principals' perceptions of their school's effectiveness, their effectiveness as a leader, and their level of influence can be measured by means of a questionnaire;

3. principals would provide accurate responses to the questionnaire;

4. the respondents' ratings on the questionnaire items would provide valid indicators of their job satisfaction and their role aspects being measured; and

5. the rating scales used to rate job satisfaction and perceptions of school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence possess interval properties.

Limitations

This study was limited by the instrumentation used. A questionnaire is a convenient means of data collection but it is limited by the extent to which it can measure the variables being studied. Except for the job satisfaction items, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire were not established previously. The follow-up interviews should have overcome some of the limitation of using only questionnaires to collect data by providing insights which helped to support or explain some of the findings.

Second, this study was limited because it was not longitudinal. Job satisfaction and perceptions of the various role aspects were not measured at several different times in the school year. Because the measurements were restricted to one particular time in the school year, the responses may not be representative of other times. However, this limitation should not have substantially affected the testing of relationships between variables all of which were measured at the same time.

Third, this study was limited because causal relationships were not posited for investigation. No cause-effect relationships were suggested even when strong relationships were found.

Research Design

Respondents rated their overall job satisfaction, the overall effectiveness of their school, their overall effectiveness as a leader, and their overall level of influence. These measures were used to test statistically the relationship between overall job satisfaction and each of the other three variables (Questions 1, 2, and 3). Frequency distributions and comparison of means were used to determine the extent to which overall job satisfaction was related to selected organizational characteristics and personal characteristics (Question 4). Also respondents rated their satisfaction with particular facets of their job and statistical analysis was used to identify which facets of job satisfaction were the best predictors of overall job satisfaction (Question 5).

Respondents rated the effectiveness of their school according to numerous criteria; statistical analysis was used to identify which criteria were the best predictors of overall school effectiveness (Question 6). The same approach was used to identify which criteria of leader effectiveness were the best predictors of overall leader effectiveness (Question 7), and which bases of influence contributed the most to overall level of influence (Question 8).

Finally, the measures of satisfaction with selected facets of the job and the measures of perceived school effectiveness were analysed statistically to determine the extent to which satisfaction with selected facets was related to perceived school effectiveness (Question 9). A similar approach was used to determine the extent to which satisfaction with selected facets was related to perceived leader effectiveness (Question 10) and to perceived level of influence (Question 11).

Data Collection and Analysis

Questionnaires were mailed to all 155 principals of senior high schools in Alberta, i.e., all secondary schools having Grade 10 and/or Grade 11 and/or Grade 12. A stratified sample of ten respondents was interviewed in order to obtain more insight into the context of the questionnaire responses.

The Job Satisfaction instrument in the questionnaire was based on the instrument used by Rice (1978), "Sources of Principal Satisfaction." The instruments in the questionnaire for measuring perceived school effectiveness, leader effectiveness, and level of influence were developed from the review of the literature in each of the areas. For example, the items in the Level of Influence instrument reflect the types of social power differentiated by French and Raven (1959:155).

The interview schedule was derived from the analysis of the questionnaire data. The analysis generated several questions related to the nature of the major variables: the interview schedule was designed to answer these questions.

In an effort to remove some ambiguity and to increase validity, the questionnaire was reviewed by three senior administrators in the Department of Education, the Alberta Teachers' Association, and a school district. The questionnaire was then pilot-tested by principals who were graduate students in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta. The interview schedule was reviewed by the thesis advisory committee and was pilot-tested by three of the graduate students who had previously pilot-tested the questionnaire.

One concern was that in evaluating their own effectiveness and their school's effectiveness, principals may have tended to give self-enhancing responses. "Self-enhancement" effects should have been minimized by a guarantee of complete anonymity and by explaining the purpose of the study in a non-threatening way.

Correlational analysis, frequency distributions, regression analysis, and comparison of means were the most common statistical techniques used to provide information relevant to the research questions. The free responses from the questionnaire were analysed using content analysis techniques. More qualitative techniques were used to analyse the interview data in an effort not to reduce the descriptive quality of the responses; a doctoral student observed and evaluated the use of these qualitative techniques.

Organization of the Thesis

An overview of the study has been presented in this chapter. The literature on job satisfaction, school effectiveness, leader effectiveness, and the level of influence of leaders is reviewed in Chapter 2; a conceptual framework for this study is presented at the end of Chapter 2 in an effort to demonstrate the theoretical linkages among the major variables. Development of the research instruments, the procedures used in data collection, and the data analysis techniques utilized are described in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 is a profile of the respondents to the questionnaire and the interviewees. The analyses of the questionnaire data and the interview data are reported, respectively, in Chapters 5 and 6. Chapter 7 reports the discussion of the findings and the conclusions drawn from the data analyses. Chapter 8 summarizes the thesis and reports the implications of the study for researchers and practitioners in educational administration.

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature

This chapter is a review of four very broad, well-developed bodies of literature—job satisfaction, school (and organizational) effectiveness, leadership effectiveness and power or influence of leaders. The relevant theories and research findings on job satisfaction are reported in considerable detail and in a sequence that demonstrates their conceptual and historical development. The following sequence is used under the heading of job satisfaction: definitions of job satisfaction; job satisfaction and work motivation; theories of job satisfaction and/or work motivation; factors affecting job satisfaction; role conflict and role ambiguity; job stress and job burnout; consequences of satisfaction and dissatisfaction; and job satisfaction of school principals.

In comparison, the reviews of the other three bodies of literature are more limited or narrow. The reviews of the literature on school effectiveness, leadership effectiveness, and level of influence are more or less restricted to the information necessary to develop the instruments for assessing the perceptions of each variable. These reviews are reported in the following sequence: school effectiveness (including organizational effectiveness); the influence of leaders (the nature and bases of power or influence); and leadership effectiveness (the nature and functions of leadership and school principals as leaders).

A conceptual framework is presented at the end of the chapter to illustrate the relationships among the major variables in the study.

Job Satisfaction

Definitions of Job Satisfaction

It is difficult to find definitions of job satisfaction although so much has been written on the topic. In commenting about this "nebulous concept," Mumford (1972:4) said that "many of us talk about it a great deal but . . . are hard pushed to provide an acceptable definition." Vroom (1973:64) defined job satisfaction as "a person's affective reactions to his total work role." Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969:6), who developed the often-used Cornell Job Descriptive Index (J.D.I.) for measuring job satisfaction, defined "job satisfaction as the feelings a worker has about his job." These two simple definitions, by influential researchers in the field, explain very little about job satisfaction. The following definition by Locke (1976:1342), which provides more insight, has appeared often in the literature and was cited in Chapter 1 as the definition used in this study:

> Job satisfaction may be viewed as the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values, providing these values are compatible with one's needs.

All three definitions refer to job satisfaction as the emotional state or feeling of individuals toward their present job. This understanding of job satisfaction distinguishes it from the group concept of "morale."

Morale. Whereas job satisfaction is a feeling or attitude of an individual, Gruneberg (1979:3) stated that "morale refers to group wellbeing." Locke (1976:1300) viewed both job satisfaction and morale as emotional states, but he noted two differences in emphasis:

> First, morale is more future-oriented, while satisfaction is more present and past oriented; and second morale often has a group referent . . . while satisfaction typically refers to the appraisal made by a single individual of his job situation.

Thus job satisfaction and morale are distinguishable from each other although they are closely related or similar in nature.

Job Satisfaction and Work Motivation

In well-known books on organizational psychology, the following theories (and others) are discussed under the chapter title "motivation" or the title "job satisfaction": expectancy theory, discrepancy theory, need-fulfillment theory, equity theory, value theory, and motivation-hygiene theory (Korman, 1971; Gilmer and Deci, 1977; Kelly, 1980; Landy and Trumbo, 1980). For example, Kelly (1980) described the motivation-hygiene theory and the expectancy theory in his chapter entitled "Motivation and Learning" and Gilmer and Deci (1977) described the same theories in their chapter on job satisfaction. Several theories, some of which are very similar, attempt to explain the motivation and/or job satisfaction of workers. In trying to see the distinguishing characteristics of the theories, confusion arises because motivation and job satisfaction are very closely related.

Gilmer and Deci (1977:229-230) presented evidence that different factors influence job satisfaction of workers and the performance of workers, and they noted that Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory and Vroom's (1964) instrumentality-valence theory were offered to account for this difference—that motivation is a direct cause of better performance, while job satisfaction is not directly related to performance. In their discussion of how Herzberg's theory distinguishes between the determinants of job satisfaction and the determinants of motivation, Gilmer and Deci (1977:231) concluded that

> the important point is that rewards—whether extrinsic or intrinsic—which fulfill salient needs leave people satisfied. But the rewards will not necessarily motivate people. They will only motivate people if their behavior is instrumental to getting those rewards.

Further,

> Vroom's instrumentality-valence theory asserts that people will be satisfied with jobs which are instrumental for providing them with desired rewards, and they will be motivated to do jobs well when those rewards are contingent on good performance. Rewards satisfy people, but the contingency of rewards is what motivates people. (Gilmer and Deci, 1977: 231-232)

In other words, the determinants of job satisfaction (rewards) may also be determinants of motivation, but only if good performance is a prerequisite to receiving the rewards.

Theories of Job Satisfaction and/or Work Motivation

As already noted, there are numerous theories or models of job satisfaction and/or work motivation, some of which are known by more than one name. For example, Holdaway (1978) pointed out that Locke's (1969, 1976) theory has been called a "value" theory, an "interactionist" theory, and a value-percept discrepancy model, among others. In this section, as well as an explanation of the foremost theories, a simple framework is provided to demonstrate how the theories are interrelated. The following approach is used.

General theories of human motivation (e.g., need-fulfillment and cognitive theories) underly more specific theories of work motivation (e.g., motivation-hygiene and instrumentality-valence theory) and these, in turn, underly the dominant, current theories of job satisfaction. The major theories of motivation and/or job satisfaction are described in a manner and sequence which should help to demonstrate how job satisfaction theories are based on cognitive and/or need fulfillment theories of motivation. The theories are presented in the following sequence: cognitive theories of motivation, Vroom's theory of work motivation, need-fulfillment theory, discrepancy theory, equity theory, motivation-hygiene theory, Lawler's model of facet satisfaction, and Locke's value theory of job satisfaction.

Cognitive theories of motivation. In the broad field of general psychology, over at least the past fifty years, various theories with different underlying assumptions have been proposed to explain the motivation of human beings (and animals) to act in a particular way or to make particular decisions. In America, the early debates over different motivation theories were between the "structuralists" and the "functionalists" and later, between the "behaviorists" and the "cognitivists." B. F. Skinner and his followers were behaviorists who explained behavior in terms of "stimulus response" connections (S-R) without considering any intervening constructs. On the other hand, the cognitivists argued that thoughts intervene between stimulus and response (S-Cognition-R) rather than the response occurring automatically or instinctively (see Weiner, 1972:8-9). According to Weiner

(1972:1), the behaviorist or mechanistic approach versus the cognitive approach to motivation was, at that time, "perhaps the most salient controversy in the field of motivation." Although the behaviorists greatly influenced American psychology, psychologists gradually accepted the subjective and cognitive approaches, according to Jung (1978:49), because strict behaviorism failed to account for various phenomena such as curiosity or exploratory behavior.

Numerous theories of motivation cannot be easily classified as mechanistic or cognitive; there are several of each type and numerous others of various shades of grey between the two extremes. Not all psychologists have accepted Weiner's position that one must choose either the mechanistic or the cognitive approach to motivation; Bolles (1974) supported Weiner's position in part but contended that it by no means tells the whole story.

The cognitive theories were developed to take into account that people think. Rather than activities or responses being directly instigated by stimuli, or by intervening variables such as drives or instincts, actions are instigated by mental processes. External or internal stimuli are encoded, categorized, and transformed into a belief and then thought processes use this information to make a decision about subsequent action (Weiner, 1972). For example, a pedestrian crossing a street sees a car rapidly approaching, realizes that he is in danger, mentally considers his alternatives, and decides to run in a particular direction to avoid being injured. As stated by Weiner (1972:2),

> this approach may be broadly categorized as a stimulus-cognition-response (S-C-R). That is, higher mental processes

> intervene between inputs (antecedent stimuli) and behavioral outputs (consequences); the structure of thought determines action.

Further, Bolles (1974:19) described what seems to be the conceptual system for current cognitive motivational models. Bolles believed that the trend was clearly toward a conceptual system in which cognitive processes determine behavior or responses (Cognitive Processes → R). It is important to note that the construct stimulation was dropped. Bolles (1974:19) made the following comment:

> This is not to say that we do not respond to stimulation, but its absence emphasizes the point that we are not dependent upon stimulation; we are not passive. Cognitive processes in and of themselves generate plenty of behavior.

This belief, that individuals are not passive, that they do not only react to stimuli but also use thought processes to make decisions or choices, is quite appropriate for understanding the motivation of individuals in their work. Vroom's instrumentality-valence theory of work motivation (referred to in the previous section) was based on this belief.

Vroom's theory of work motivation. Vroom (1964:14-19) presented his "outline of a cognitive model" to explain how individuals make choices in their jobs. A summary statement of Vroom's instrumentality-valence theory was given by Campbell and Pritchard (1976:74-75):

> The Vroom model attempts to predict (a) choices among tasks or (b) choices among effort levels within tasks. In brief, he sees the force on a person to choose a particular task or effort level as a function of two variables: the valence, or perceived value of outcomes stemming from the action, and the expectancy, or belief that the behavior will result in attaining these outcomes.

The model is complicated in that Vroom defined numerical values and limits for each of three variables—valence, instrumentality, and expectancy—and expressed the relationships among these variables in algebraic terms. For the purpose of this discussion it was necessary only to outline the nature of the variables and, in general terms, the relationships among them.

Vroom (1964:15) used the term valence to refer to "affective orientations toward particular outcomes" and equated it conceptually with job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964:101). An outcome (completion of a task or job) will have a positive valence or perceived "value" to individuals if they believe that the outcome will be instrumental in providing desired rewards. Or as cited in a section above, they will be satisfied with completing a task which is instrumental in providing rewards. Furthermore, not only must they perceive that completing a task will be instrumental in providing rewards, but also, they must expect that the rewards will be forthcoming if they are to be motivated to perform the task well. A task may be satisfying but it may not be performed well if rewards are not expected. Vroom (1964:17) based his model on the belief that an individual's behavior "is affected not only by his preferences among these outcomes but also by the degree to which he believes these outcomes to be probable." Vroom referred to this belief as expectancy.

The characteristics of a cognitive theory are obvious in Vroom's theory. The theory is stated in terms of expectancies, values, and perceptions of future consequences; individuals are able to evaluate the consequences of their actions and make choices according to their perceived values. The importance of perception as one of the psychological processes involved must also be underlined. According to Vroom's theory, perception and other thought-processes certainly play a major role in determining how well workers will perform.

Vroom's theory has been the dominant motivational theory in organizational psychology, according to Campbell and Pritchard (1976: 74), and researchers have continued to use it as a conceptual framework or as a basis for modified or expanded theories of motivation. The contribution of Vroom's theory to current theories of job satisfaction is accentuated in the discussion that follows. Porter and Lawler (1968) and Lawler (1973) developed motivational models which were based on Vroom's work and from these Lawler designed his model of job satisfaction. Also, Locke's value theory contains concepts put forward by Vroom and Lawler, as well as other theorists.

Vroom's theory is not the only one which has influenced the development of important theories of job satisfaction. Three more general, motivational/job satisfaction theories—need-fulfillment, discrepancy, and equity theory—underly or have influenced the development of Lawler's (1973) model of facet satisfaction and Locke's (1969, 1976) value theory. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory is a type of need-fulfillment theory, but it is quite distinct from the other two theories. The three general theories are described very briefly before the three dominant, current theories are described in more detail.

Need-fulfillment theory. In Maslow's (1943, 1968) need theory, lower-level needs (e.g., physical and security needs) must be satisfied before upper-level needs (e.g., esteem and self-actualization). The satisfaction or dissatisfaction that individuals feel depends upon the fulfillment of their lower-level needs and upper-level needs. Locke (1976:1303) cited the following studies to provide examples of theorists who have argued that the degree of job satisfaction is determined by the degree to which jobs fulfill or allow the fulfillment of needs: Lofquist and Dawis (1969), Morse (1953), Porter (1962), Schaffer (1953), and Wofford (1971). Locke described two interrelated categories of human needs—physical and psychological—and stressed that "needs are objective requirements of an organism's survival and well being" (Locke, 1976:1303). That is, individuals have these needs whether they are conscious of them or not.

Discrepancy theory. The discrepancy theory of job satisfaction assumes that the degree of satisfaction of individuals is not determined simply by the amount of desired rewards or outcomes, but rather by the differences between the amount of rewards that individuals receive and the amount that they feel they should receive (Gilmer and Deci, 1977:232 and Lawler, 1973:66). Both Lawler (1973:74) and Locke (1976:1304) asserted that the "perceived" discrepancy lies between what individuals perceive that they have received and what they feel they should receive. Satisfaction results when the perceived rewards or outcomes match or are greater than the feeling of what should be received.

Equity theory. Although equity theory is predominantly a motivation theory, some aspects of it help to explain causes of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Lawler, 1973:69). It is also a type of discrepancy theory. Gilmer and Deci (1977:233) explained it in this way:

> People prefer to have interactions which they perceived to be equitable. . . . This notion leads to a special formulation of discrepancy theory—namely, that workers will be satisfied with their jobs when there is no discrepancy between their outcomes and their belief about what is an equitable outcome. When there is a discrepancy, whether outcomes are higher or lower than what is perceived to be equitable, people will be satisfied.

These three explanations of three general theories—need-fulfillment, discrepancy, and equity theory—are helpful in understanding the descriptions of particular job satisfaction theories or models that follow.

Motivation-hygiene theory. The motivation-hygiene or two-factor theory is a type of need-fulfillment theory that was developed from the work of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) and then was expanded by Herzberg (1966). Since 1959, much research and writing has been done which tests, supports, and criticizes Herzberg's theory; the controversy continues today.

The motivation-hygiene theory (and the "critical incident technique") has received much attention because two aspects of the theory are unique, as explained by Lawler (1973:70):

> First, two-factor theory says that satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on a continuum running from satisfaction through neutral to dissatisfaction. Two independent continua exist, one running from satisfied to neutral, and another running from dissatisfied to neutral. . . . Second, the theory stresses that different job facets influence feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Those facets of work that cause satisfaction when present, Herzberg calls motivators and those that cause dissatisfaction when absent he called hygiene factors. Herzberg (1966:60) identified the motivators as achievement, recognition, advancement, possibility of growth, responsibility, and work itself. The hygiene factors are technical supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships, company policy and administration, personal life, working conditions, status, and job security.

Thus, Herzberg's theory proposes that job satisfaction results from certain causes (motivators) and dissatisfaction results from other causes (hygiene factors). The theory was based on the idea that humans have two separate and unrelated classes of needs—physical and psychological. As stated by Locke (1976:1310),

> the two-factor theory of job satisfaction parallels this dual theory of man's needs. The Hygiene factors operate only to frustrate or fulfill man's physical needs, while the Motivators serve to fulfill or frustrate man's growth needs.

Many theorists and researchers have severely criticized the motivation-hygiene theory, on theoretical and methodological grounds. The main methodological criticism is that the results of research using the critical-incident technique are method-bound. People tend to respond defensively; they attribute causes of satisfaction to themselves and causes of dissatisfaction to the environment. When another research method is used to test Herzberg's theory the results are not the same—for a more detailed discussion and more evidence, see Friesen et al. (1983:41) and Landy and Trumbo (1980:406).

Although the motivation-hygiene theory has received much criticism, it has received considerable praise for the influence it has had in generating applied research on psychological growth and its relation to work. Locke (1976:1318) made the following comment:

> In one respect, Herzberg has made a major contribution to our knowledge and understanding of the nature of job satisfaction. This contribution stems from his stress on the importance of psychological growth as a precondition of job satisfaction and his showing that such growth stems from the work itself. This has led to many fruitful suggestions concerning how jobs might be redesigned to allow for greater psychological growth.

Lawler's model of facet satisfaction. Lawler (1973:72) believed that

> equity theory and discrepancy theory are the two strongest theoretical explanations of satisfaction. Either theory could be used as a basis for thinking about the determinants of satisfaction. Fortunately it is not necessary to choose between the theories since it is possible to build a satisfaction model that capitalizes on the strengths of each theory.

Therefore, Lawler designed a model of "facet" satisfaction combining the strengths of equity and discrepancy theory. He made the following distinction between facet satisfaction and overall job satisfaction:

> Facet satisfaction refers to people's affective reactions to particular aspects of their job. Pay, supervision, and promotion opportunities are frequently studied facets. Job satisfaction [overall] refers to a person's affective reactions to his total work role. (Lawler, 1973:64)

It is important to distinguish between facet satisfaction and job satisfaction because "a number of theories argue that job satisfaction is determined by some combination of people's affective reactions to the various facets of their job" (Lawler, 1973:65). Supporting this point of view, Lawler's model was meant to explain what determines individuals' satisfaction with any facet or aspect of their job.

To summarize the implications of his model, Lawler (1973:77) made the following statements about who should be dissatisfied, all things being equal and if the model is correct:

1. People with high perceived inputs will be more dissatisfied with a given facet than people with low perceived inputs.

2. People who perceive their job to be demanding will be more dissatisfied with a given facet than people who perceive their jobs as undemanding.

3. People who perceive similar others as having a more favorable input-output balance will be more dissatisfied with a given facet than people who perceive their own balance as similar to or better than that of others.

4. People who receive a low outcome level will be more dissatisfied than those who receive a high outcome level.

5. The more outcomes a person perceives his comparison-other receives, the more dissatisfied he will be with his own outcomes. This should be particularly true when the comparison-other is seen to hold a job that demands the same or fewer inputs.

In their discussion of Lawler's model, Landy and Trumbo (1980:400) emphasized perception as a very important process in the model. Some of the variables that are used to determine satisfaction or dissatisfaction are perceived personal job inputs, perceived inputs and outputs of referent others, perceived job characteristics, and perceived outcomes (rewards). Any discrepancy lies between the perceived rewards received and the perceived equitable rewards that should be received.

Lawler designed his model to measure the satisfaction of individuals with particular facets of their jobs. He believed that overall job satisfaction could be expressed as a sum or average of all the discrepancies determined by the model because "overall job satisfaction is determined by the difference between all the things a person feels he should receive from his job and all the things he actually does receive" (Lawler, 1973:77). However, he pointed out that there is strong theoretical support for weighting satisfaction scores according to their importance. Some facets, such as pay, work itself, and supervision, seem to make a larger contribution to overall satisfaction than others.

Lawler's theoretical approach to job satisfaction was a consequence of his adopting and adapting Vroom's cognitive approach to motivation of workers. Although equity theory and discrepancy theory did not contribute to Vroom's model, they are certainly cognitive in nature and involve perceptual processes. Also, Lawler's understanding of satisfaction as "affective reactions" corresponds to Vroom's understanding of valence and job satisfaction (the concept of needs, as in need-fulfillment theory, is not used by Lawler). Lawler's theoretical approach to job satisfaction is cognitive in that the affective reactions of individuals to facets of their job are determined by internal thought processes, by their perceptions of such factors as their input-output balance and how their work situation compares to those of other workers.

Locke's value theory. Locke (1976:1304) distinguished between needs which are "objective" and values which are "subjective." In Locke's terms, values are what persons consciously or unconsciously want or seek to attain; values have been acquired (learned) and needs are innate (inborn).

In proposing his type of discrepancy theory, Locke (1976:1304) suggested that individuals have a "value hierarchy" in which their values are ranked as to importance. Locke believed, as Lawler (1973) did, that satisfaction with particular facets of the job should be weighted as to importance in determining overall satisfaction.

After much discussion of values, needs, and the various theories of job satisfaction, Locke (1976:1319) suggested the following definition of job satisfaction:

> Job satisfaction results from the appraisal of one's job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one's important job values, providing these values are congruent with or help to fulfill one's basic needs.

In this definition and Locke's definition cited at the beginning of this chapter one can see that Locke embodied in his theory the strongest aspects of other theories of job satisfaction—satisfaction results if there is no discrepancy or incongruence, perception is one of the processes involved, the important job values have more weight, and needs and values are distinguished from each other. Locke's theory is a type of cognitive theory involving the concepts of values, affective reactions, and discrepancy used by Lawler, yet, it involves the concepts of needs and hierarchy used by Maslow and Herzberg.

Concluding statement. In this outline of job satisfaction and/or motivation theories, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory was seen as a type of need-fulfillment theory, Lawler's model of facet satisfaction was seen as a consequence, at least in part, of Vroom's cognitive theory of work motivation, and Locke's value theory was seen as an effort to combine the strengths of need-fulfillment and cognitive theories. Because Locke's value theory reflects characteristics of the well-known and influential theories of Herzberg, Vroom and Lawler, it underlies the theoretical approach adopted for this study. The underlying concepts of Locke's theory are summarized in the conceptual framework at the end of this chapter.

Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

To this point, theories and models that attempt to explain what causes job satisfaction or dissatisfaction have been described briefly. But many research studies in many types of organizations have been carried out—without a particular theoretical orientation—to identify factors which affect job satisfaction. As stated by Landy and Trumbo (1980:409), "the amount of research is accumulating so rapidly that one must depend on the most recent review available for drawing any general conclusions." They wrote that Locke (1976) has provided the most extensive, recent review of job satisfaction research.

In his survey of major research findings, Locke (1976:1328) summarized the causal factors in job satisfaction:

> (1) mentally challenging work with which the individual can cope successfully; (2) personal interest in the work itself; (3) work which is not too physically tiring, (4) rewards for performance which are just, informative, and in line with the individual's personal aspirations; (5) working conditions which are compatible with the individual's physical needs and which facilitate the accomplishment of his work goals; (6) high self-esteem on the part of the employee; (7) agents in the work place who help the employee to attain job values such as interesting work, pay and promotions, whose basic values are similar to his own, and who minimize role conflict and ambiguity.

These factors can be categorized under (1) events and conditions and (2) agents. Landy and Trumbo (1980:410) distinguished between these two categories: "while events and conditions are thought to be directly responsible for feelings of happiness or unhappiness, agents are responsible for events and conditions." The term "agent" includes the self as well as supervisors, co-workers, and subordinates. The importance of self as a cause of job satisfaction has been receiving more attention under the heading "individual differences."

The following individual differences are commonly studied with respect to job satisfaction: age, cultural background, socioeconomic status, personality, tenure, and level in the organization. According to Gruneberg (1979) and Landy and Trumbo (1980), the research in this area is inconclusive. Gruneberg (1979:90) commented that "a great many of the findings are inconsistent and . . . the research on this aspect of job satisfaction is perhaps less satisfactory than in other areas." Although studies have shown small and inconsistent effects of these "individual" variables, Gruneberg (1979:104) qualified this by saying that "this is not to say that individual differences are not important, but the evidence does suggest that other organizational factors are more important at the present time."

Recently, researchers have centered on two areas of study in which the effects of organizational factors on members of organizations are measured. First, role perceptions or "role conflict and role ambiguity" are being tested as factors which may affect job satisfaction and worker performance and second, "job stress" and "burnout" are being studied as factors which may affect job satisfaction, performance and health of workers. Because of the increasing importance of these two areas of study in organizational psychology, they are introduced briefly under separate headings as an extension of this discussion of factors that affect job satisfaction.

Role conflict and role ambiguity. Following the research of Kahn et al. (1961, 1964), some researchers have directed considerable attention toward the relationships between organizational stress and job satisfaction, worker performance, and the desire to seek other employment. Szilagyi (1977:376) stated that

> Kahn et al. (1961) developed a theory of role dynamics which focused on the existence of organizational stress resulting from conflicting, incompatible, or unclear expectations that are derived from the work environment. Two main types of role stress were defined; role conflict and role ambiguity.

Kahn et al. (1964:19) were concerned with the psychological conflict within individuals which occurs when various members of their organization or work group hold quite different role expectations toward them; i.e., conflicting expectations impose on individuals pressures toward different kinds of behavior thus creating internal conflict. Role ambiguity results from inadequate information or unclear communication about what the role should be. Individuals will experience role ambiguity to the extent that information about their role is lacking or unclear (Kahn et al., 1964:25).

Szilagyi's (1977:376-378) report of his study provides a concise review of the research on role conflict and role ambiguity, and their relationship to job satisfaction and job performance. Although some early studies found strong negative relationships among role ambiguity, role conflict and job satisfaction, more recent research indicated, according to Szilagyi (1977:376), "that role ambiguity and role conflict are not always negatively related to job satisfaction."

Szilagyi cited studies which did not find significant negative relationships between job satisfaction and both role ambiguity and role conflict—Tosi (1971), House and Rizzo (1972), and Hamner and Tosi (1974). For example, Tosi (1971) confirmed a negative relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction but found no relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction; Hamner and Tosi (1974) confirmed a negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction but found no relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction. Results such as these suggested caution and further research.

Several researchers found evidence that "moderating" variables affect the direct relationships between role ambiguity, role conflict, and job satisfaction. Szilagyi (1977) found evidence to support the work of Hamner and Tosi (1974) and Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller (1976) who had identified organizational level as a moderating variable between job satisfaction and role ambiguity; i.e., individuals at lower organizational levels react less negatively to role ambiguity than those at higher levels. In his study of 295 administrative, professional, and service employees of a medical complex in the Southwestern United States, Szilagyi (1977:385) found that role ambiguity is causally related to job satisfaction at the higher organizational levels, that role conflict is causally related to job satisfaction at the lower levels, and that both role ambiguity and role conflict are causally related at the middle organizational levels.

Organizational level is not the only variable that has been recognized as having a moderating influence on the role perception-job satisfaction relationship. Johnson and Stinson (1975:330) chose need for achievement and need for independence as individual difference variables, "because of their prominence in the organizational behavior literature," and analyzed their moderating effect on the relationships between role conflict and role ambiguity and job satisfaction. They administered questionnaires to 92 military officers and civil service personnel at two large military bases in the United States. The results of this study indicated that both need for achievement and need for independence moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intersender conflict and between satisfaction and task ambiguity. Johnson and Stinson (1975:331) operationally defined intersender conflict as "the degree to which subjects received incompatible requests concerning their work" and task ambiguity as "the extent to which subjects clearly understood the job duties, responsibilities, authority, etc." As stated by Johnson and Stinson (1975:332),

> the relationship between intersender conflict and satisfaction is more negative for both high-need-for achievement subjects and high-need-for-independence subjects than for subjects low in these characteristics.

This could also be said about the relationship between task ambiguity and job satisfaction.

Schuler (1977) examined how organizational level and employee ability moderate the relationships between role perceptions and job satisfaction and performance. Questionnaires were administered to 391 employees at three different levels of a large manufacturing firm and to 435 employees at two different levels in a large utility in the United States. Mossholder, Bedeian, and Armenaki (1981:225) provided the following explicit statement of Schuler's findings:

> Schuler (1977) found that the moderating impact of employee ability on role ambiguity varied according to the organizational level to which an employee belonged. The nature of the moderating effect was such that high ability, operationalized by education and work experience, attenuated the negative effects of role ambiguity on satisfaction and performance at lower levels only.

Mossholder et al. (1981:225) examined further this "joint moderating influence of ability and organizational level [using] a less situationally specific operationalization of employee ability." Based on the understanding that "as a self-perceived abstract of individual ability, self esteem has been shown to remain relatively stable across situations," Mossholder et al. (1981:226) hypothesized that self-esteem and organizational level should jointly moderate role perception-outcome relationships. More specifically,

> it is hypothesized that the combined effect of organizational level and self-esteem on role ambiguity and conflict is such that differences in self-esteem will diminish the negative effects of these role perceptions at lower organizational levels. (Mossholder et al., 1981:226)

Mossholder et al. administered questionnaires to 206 nursing employees (at two organizational levels) at a large hospital in the Southwest of the United States. The analyses of the data confirmed that the detrimental impact of role ambiguity on satisfaction and of role conflict on performance for lower organizational level employees was mitigated by high self-esteem (Mossholder et al., 1981:231); thus the hypothesis was only partially confirmed. Mossholder et al. (1981:231) made the following important observation:

> Of course it should be recognized that although the results of the moderator analyses are significant, they account for small amounts of variance in satisfaction and performance. As was the case in Schuler (1977), the presence of small effects and only partial confirmation of the present study's hypothesis suggests that further investigation of the complex relationships among self-esteem, organizational level, and role perception is necessary.

Obviously, much more research is required to understand the joint mediating effects of these varibles on th relationships between role perceptions and job satisfaction.

Job stress and job burnout. There appears to be little agreement among behavioral scientists on how the term "job stress" should be defined (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978; Beehr and Newman, 1978). But, in the words of Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978:1),

> Nevertheless, two common usages of the term stress itself may be clearly distinguished (Cox, 1975; McGrath, 1970). The first defines stress in terms of the stimulus characteristics of the environment, and essentially conceptualises stress as pressure exerted by the environment on an individual. The second defines stress in terms of a state or response pattern displayed by an individual, and essentially conceptualises stress as something that happens within the individual.

The definitions of job stress cited below seem to fall into the second category—a response pattern within the individual—although the response pattern is a consequence of environmental stimuli or influences.

Buck (1972:49) developed the following conceptual definition of job pressure, which he considered to be synonymous with job stress:

> Job pressure is conceptually defined as the resultant psychological state of the individual which exists when he perceives that (1) conflicting forces and incompatible demands are being made upon him in connection with his work; (2) at least one of the forces or demands is an induced one; (3) the forces are recurrent or stable over time.

Brief, Schuler, and van Sell (1981:2) viewed job stress as a psychological state of disequilibrium:

> Job stress is a condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs and is characterized by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning (Beehr and Newman, 1978). This definition is best understood by considering that the body and mind of a person are in a state of equilibrium at the outset of a job experience, but as a result of an occurrence related to work, the person's equilibrium is disrupted.

This definition was derived from the definition of Beehr and Newman (1978:69) who stated

> that the job stress phenomenon involves complicated interactions between person and environment [and] that time plays an important role. [Thus] it seemed important that a definition of job stress . . . not restrict potentially valuable contributions (e.g., physiological, psychological, behavioral) to our understanding of the job-stress—employee health phenomenon.

These definitions reflect a broad conceptualization of job stress—rather than a narrow conceptualization such as an internal response approach or an environmental stimulus approach.

"Job burnout," a term commonly associated with extreme job stress, also refers to an affective reaction or internal psychological state. Veninga and Spradley (1981:6) provided the following definition of job burnout:

> Job burnout refers to a debilitating psychological condition brought about by unrelieved work stress, which results in:
> 1. depleted energy reserves
> 2. lowered resistance to illness
> 3. increased dissatisfaction and pessimism
> 4. increased absenteeism and inefficiency at work.

Veninga and Spradley (1981:7) explained that "this condition is debilitating because it has the power to weaken, even devastate, otherwise healthy, energetic, and competent individuals."

Job stress and job burnout refer to the affective reactions or internal psychological states of individuals, brought about by their perceptions of their work situations. But job satisfaction also refers to the affective reaction of individuals to their work situations. Brief et al. (1981:22) stated that "job dissatisfaction is the most well-established consequence of job stress" and Buck (1972:158) referred to job satisfaction as one of the outputs of job pressure. Similarly, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978:5), in developing their model of teacher stress, viewed job dissatisfaction as a psychological response correlate of teacher job stress. In their testing of the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction in England, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979:95) reported that "the results of the present study support the predictions made of a negative association between self-reported teacher stress and job satisfaction ($r = -.27$; $p < .01$)."

Although a causal relationship is recognized between job stress and job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction), job stress is not identical to job dissatisfaction. In testing the relationship between job satisfaction and perceived job pressure, Buck (1972:162) found that "while there was evidence that the two feelings were related, the overall low degree of association between job pressure and the job satisfaction items indicated that they were not the same." Also, job stress is not a prerequisite of dissatisfaction. As stated by Buck (1972:162), "pressure is not a necessary condition for dissatisfaction; any unmet expectation about what a job should be could cause dissatisfaction." For example, workers may be dissatisfied by low wages or lack of promotion opportunities while, at the same time, they do not feel that they are under pressure at work.

Although it is usually assumed or implied that job stress results in negative consequences, it may result in positive consequences. In addressing the question "Is job pressure good or bad?" Buck (1972:178) stated that

> for many people job pressure could be good if the outcomes were good and bad if the outcomes were bad. In terms of this investigation, job pressure would be good if it contributed to positive job satisfaction, mental health, and to the quality and quantity of production.

Job dissatisfaction is one of several negative consequences of job burnout. Veninga and Spradley (1981:9), who referred to job dissatisfaction as "an important barometer of burnout," made this statement with respect to their study of job burnout: "with amazing regularity we found that when people learn to cope with work pressures, when they recovered from job burnout, their satisfaction level went up drammatically." The causal relationship between job burnout and job dissatisfaction is obvious.

In summary, job stress is the internal response condition of individuals resulting from various work-related stimuli, which cause negative (sometimes positive), psychological, physiological, and behavioral changes. Job dissatisfaction is most often a consequence of job stress and always a consequence of job burnout.

Consequences of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Many researchers have investigated productivity, absenteeism, and turnover as important consequences of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Until recently, most studies have shown a fairly strong relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism and turnover. However, this relationship has been questioned by several researchers who say that the relationship is very complex, if it exists at all. A detailed review of this recent research has been completed by Landy and Trumbo (1980:415-419).

Although most administrators assume implicitly that satisfied workers will produce more, researchers have known for some time that job satisfaction is not a cause of higher productivity. After an extensive review of the literature, Locke (1976:1334) concluded that "job satisfaction has no direct effect on productivity." In fact Gruneberg (1979:127) pointed out that "the more popular current theory suggests that productivity affects job satisfaction but, . . . this theory has little evidence to support it." Gruneberg (1979: 128) made the following comment about the disappointing conclusions regarding overall job satisfaction:

> Inconsistencies in findings are bound to exist in profusion where cultural, personality and organizational factors all vary and where few researchers use the same instruments to measure the phenomena under investigation.

Job Satisfaction of School Principals

In the relatively few studies of job satisfaction of school principals, little continuity of theoretical framework or research methodology is evident. The studies relate job satisfaction to a variety of particular role-related, organizational or demographic variables. Several of these studies are reviewed below.

Carr (1971) sent a questionnaire to 101 high school principals in Michigan to investigate the relationship between the Likert system of human management and job satisfaction. Carr (1971:75) summarized the characteristics of the well-known, highly researched Likert management model in this statement:

> The Likert 'system 4' model has proved to be a useful one for the organization of the human component in industry and government. It consists of a variety of characteristics involving mutual confidence and trust, shared decision-making, ego-enhancement, and interaction-influence networks.

Through hypothesis testing he found a statistically significant postive relationship between the job satisfaction scores of high school principals and the scores indicating the degree to which they perceive characteristics of the Likert management model being practiced in their school system.

Schmidt (1976) used Herzberg's "critical incident technique" to study the job satisfaction of 74 secondary school administrators—supervisor, principal, and immediate subordinate—from 25 schools in the Chicago suburbs. From his data, Schmidt (1976:81) concluded that "administrators indicated that recognition, achievement, and advancement are major forces in motivating them to lift their performance to approach their maximum potential." He also concluded that administrators are motivated very little by salary, good interpersonal relations, effective policy and administration, and supervision, but these same factors were highly dissatisfying to the administrator when not effectively present. These results are strongly supported by Iannone's (1973) study of 20 high school and 20 elementary school principals in New York, using the same technique.

Brown (1976) also found evidence that advancement is important to principals. He assessed the relationships between the perceived needs (security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization) of educational administrators and selected variables, the major variable being job level. He drew a large stratified sample of principals, directors, assistant superintendents, and superintendents from a large northern state in the United States. He found a significant positive relationship between need satisfaction and three of fourteen independent variables tested; these three were job level, level of education, and the time one expected to remain in his position. Brown

(1976:49) concluded that

> this study revealed that school administrators, like their counterparts within business and industry, are motivated by high status positions. Occupational status is a strong motivating factor for school administrators . . . .

Rice (1978) designed a 45-item questionnaire to elicit responses from 410 school principals in Alberta, for information about their perceptions of sources of their satisfaction and dissatisfaction. His stratified random sample was a proportional representation of principals (elementary and secondary) from four different types of school systems in the Province of Alberta. As well as trying to identify what aspects of their role contribute to satisfaction and dissatisfaction of principals, Rice attempted to find the extent to which these aspects correspond to those obtained by Herzberg and other researchers. In their discussion of the findings of Rice's study, Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1981:4) concluded that

> the findings of this investigation are not totally consistent with previous findings nor with theory on job satisfaction. . . . The major disagreement with previous research is that interpersonal relationships were seen primarily as satisfiers by the principals in this sample.

According to Herzberg's theory, interpersonal relationships are hygiene factors; as noted above, Schmidt (1976) and Iannonne (1973) found support for this in their studies. In their later article, Friesen et al. (1983:23) observed that "two general sets of facets were identified as sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction but substantial overlap often occurred."

Johnston et al. (1981) sent the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire to a stratified random sample of 45 elementary, junior high, and senior high school principals in rural, suburban, and urban schools, in a Northeastern region of the United States. Their primary purpose was to examine how the perceived level of teacher militancy relates to the job satisfaction of principals. No statistically significant relationship was found.

Recently, Bacharach and Mitchell (1983) have centered on organizational factors, rather than personality variables, as determinants of job satisfaction of educational administrators. Questionnaires were sent to 46 superintendents and 95 principals in New York State, in districts randomly sampled and stratified according to geographic location, size, wealth of the district, and district expenditures. Hypotheses relating the following six potential variables to job dissatisfaction were tested: bureaucratization, supervision, decision-making power, district environment, work demands, and individual attributes. The findings of the study are too complex or detailed to be reported here, but very generally, for principals the results showed that bureaucratization, supervision, and decision-making power are positively related to dissatisfaction, while there was mixed support in relating district environment, work demands, and individual attributes to dissatisfaction.

In conclusion, this review of the research on job satisfaction of principals demonstrates that general principles about the nature of principal satisfaction cannot be conceptualized because there are few similarities in research designs, types of questionnaires, types of samples, and relationships tested. Each study must be considered independently.

School Effectiveness

In the literature and in the field considerable attention has been given recently to measuring and improving the effectiveness of schools. For example, the entire December issue of Educational Leadership (1982) was devoted to school effectiveness and eight of the articles described programs that have been established to identify effective schools or make schools more effective. There is considerable evidence that theorists and practitioners in the field of education are concerned about the assessment of school effectiveness.

In the broader area of organizational theory, theorists and researchers have been devoting more attention to the definition and measurement of organizational effectiveness. Several major efforts have been made to conceptualize the dimensions of organizational effectiveness and to identify a set of criteria for measuring effectiveness. Numerous theoretical models have been developed and several textbooks on the topic of organizational effectiveness or organizational assessment have been written in recent years (for example, Mott, 1972; Steers, 1977; Lawler et al., 1980; Van de Ven and Ferry, 1980).

The purpose behind this section on school effectiveness was to see if the practical framework being used to study or assess school effectiveness is congruent with or based upon the theoretical framework for assessing organizational effectiveness. In other words, how does the practical assessment of school effectiveness compare to what it should be according to theories of organizational effectiveness assessment? Three steps were required to address this question.

The first step was to outline the dominant theoretical approaches or conceptual constructs on assessing organizational effectiveness, by reviewing the recent work of some of the most influential writers in the field (see names above). The second step was to describe, according to recent journal articles, how school effectiveness is being assessed, and the final step was to compare the school assessment practices to the theoretical frameworks.

Organizational Effectiveness

While noting the importance of organizational effectiveness in an advanced industrial world, Lawler et al. (1980:2) stated that "the whole question of what defines organizational effectiveness is problematic." The problem exists because there are several different perspectives on the nature of organizational effectiveness. Three dominant theoretical perspectives are outlined below.

Lawler et al. (1980:6) viewed organizations as having two dimensions of effectiveness:

> Effectiveness includes both the task-performance capabilities of the organization (i.e., how well various components of the organization are structured and function to perform tasks) and the human impact of the system on its individual members.

From this point of view it is reasonable to expect that organizations should be capable of performing tasks effectively and efficiently, while at the same time, providing a positive work environment for the members.

In explaining his theoretical approach, Mott (1972:15) stated that "large organizations are conceptualized as collections of centers of power in varying degrees of centralization." Therefore he defined organizational effectiveness as "the ability of an organization to mobilize its centers of power for action—production and adaption" (Mott, 1972:17). Mott (1972:20-21) described how, in the earlier days of assessing the effectiveness of organizations, researchers looked for methods that were easy and inexpensive as well as valid and reliable. Using productivity data was the most common practice but such data had serious flaws, according to Mott. Productivity measures do not indicate the future effectiveness of organizations or the quality and efficiency of production. Also, turnover and absenteeism are inadequate measures of effectiveness. To overcome the problems in using only productivity data, Mott chose to use subjective measures based on his criteria of effectiveness. His three main criteria (summarized below) reflect his definition of organizational effectiveness (Mott, 1972:20):

A. Organizing centers of power for routine production (productivity),
B. Organizing centers of power to change routines (adaptability),
C. Organizing centers of power to cope with temporally unpredictable overloads of work (flexibility).

Steers (1977:5) used a goal optimization approach (rather than goal maximization) to define effectiveness "in terms of an organization's capacity to acquire and utilize its scarce and valued resources as expeditiously as possible in the pursuit of its operative and operational goals." Steers recognized that various constraints prevent goal maximization so that it is more appropriate to evaluate how feasible optimized goals are attained.

Just as Mott recommended the use of several criteria of effectiveness, Steers (1977:39-40) supported "multivariate" effectiveness measures. The criteria of effectiveness adopted by Steers were based on his multidimensional perspective or "process model" for studying effectiveness. Steers (1977:4) suggested that

> effectiveness can best be examined by jointly considering three related concepts: (1) the notion of goal optimization; (2) a systems perspective; and (3) an emphasis on human behavior in organizational settings.

Under this multidimensional perspective he suggested also "that contributing factors to the ultimate success of an organization can be found in four general domains," and these are (1) organizational characteristics; (2) environmental characteristics; (3) employee characteristics; and (4) managerial policies and practices (Steers, 1977:7). Steers listed 29 indicators of organizational effectiveness under these four headings.

In comparing the theoretical perspectives of Lawler et al., Mott, and Steers, conceptual differences are obvious, yet, these perspectives may be interpreted generally to mean the same thing. For example, if effective organizations are capable of attaining feasible, optimized goals, then they are able to mobilize their centers of power for action—viewing production and adaption as goals—or, they are capable of performing tasks while adapting to meet the needs of their members. In other words, the three perspectives support a particular meaning of organizational effectiveness: in effective organizations, scarce resources are used in the best way possible to carry out the functions for which the organization exists, while, over time, following processes that best suit the needs of the members.

According to Mott and Steers, organizational effectiveness models should be multidimensional and, therefore, there should be multivariate criteria for measuring effectiveness. Under either the "goals approach" of Mott or the process or "systems approach" of Steers, the main indicators of effectiveness are adaptability, productivity, performance, and those that measure how organizations meet the needs of its members.

Miskel (1982) designed a model of school effectiveness by integrating the goals and systems approaches to organizational effectiveness. His model and the commonly used indicators of school effectiveness are described below.

Assessing School Effectiveness

Very little attention has been given to formally defining effectiveness in the recent articles that describe assessment of school effectiveness. In most of these articles, characteristics or qualities of effective schools are discussed while the underlying assumption is that effectiveness is indicated by high academic achievement (for example, Squires et al., 1981; Cohen, 1982; Edmonds, 1982; McCormick et al., 1982). Glasman and Biniaminov (1981) reviewed over thirty studies that have been completed since 1959 on the "input-output analysis" of schools. They found that "three-fifths of the studies used only cognitive outputs" and all of these used standardized achievement tests (Glasman and Biniaminov, 1981:513). In some studies that focus on factors other than academic achievement, criteria of effectiveness or "success" are discussed without formally defining effective or "successful" schools—for example, Wynne (1981). In other words, educators and many researchers have been trying to identify criteria of effective schools without using a theoretical or conceptual construct of effectiveness. Generally, effectiveness most often has meant high academic achievement.

Miskel's (1982) recent article addressed the inadequacy of the theoretical framework for assessing school effectiveness. In reference to the long-standing public controversy over the effectiveness of schools, he made the following comments:

> The discussions, arguments, or debates about school effectiveness produce few mutually satisfactory answers. Many times they conclude that school effectiveness cannot be defined and measured. Yet, education is not without indicators of effectiveness. (Miskel, 1982:1)

He noted that interested groups frequently ask a global question about whether schools are effective or ineffective and then, in answer to the question, they have concluded too easily that "the best indicators of school effectiveness are scores on standardized tests" (Miskel, 1982:1).

Miskel argued that effectiveness of schools is not unidimensional. To understand the complex dimensions of school effectiveness, he developed an "integrated" model based on the goals and systems approaches described above. As well as integrating the goals and systems dimensions, he added four other characteristics—a time dimension, different organizational levels, multiple constituencies, and multiple criteria (Miskel, 1982:2). Under each of his dimensions of effectiveness—adaption, goal attainment, integration, and latency—Miskel listed five or six indicators of effectiveness, making a total of twenty-one. These indicators were viewed from the three perspectives of time duration, level of analysis, and constituencies.

Obviously, Miskel's integrated model was based on a theoretical framework, and school effectiveness meant much more to Miskel than high student achievement scores. His work, a theoretical study of how organizational effectiveness models can be redesigned for schools, is not a practical application of an assessment model. Although very few theoretical models such as this have been developed to assess school effectiveness, there is a fairly large body of literature describing the nature of effective schools from a less theoretical point of view. Some of this literature is reviewed below.

Practical assessment of effectiveness. Hersh (1982:34) stated that "researchers have identified the following people-related efforts as characteristics of effective schools across the country":

> Schoolwide academic and social behavior goals are clearly established and understood by all.
>
> Curriculum is closely linked to schoolwide goals and individual grade-level objectives.
>
> Teachers check student progress with frequent classroom tests and quizzes.
>
> Basic rules of conduct are understood and accepted by all members of the school community.
>
> Teachers hold high expectations not only for students, but for themselves as well.
>
> Students achieve a high rate of success with learning activities (High Academic Learning Time).
>
> Teachers choose curriculum materials wisely to insure that they match students' abilities.
>
> Teachers rely on a variety of teaching strategies to help students achieve a high rate of success.

> Teachers and principals care about students and communicate that message to parents whenever possible.
>
> Principals are strong leaders, but always listen to and act upon requests from students and teachers.
>
> Parents and community members are encouraged to participate in and support school activities.

Hersh emphasized that his approach to assessing effective schools was based on looking at what people do—teachers, students, administrators, and parents—and he credited his approach to John Goodlad and Ronald Edmonds.

Edmonds has attracted considerable attention for his research into the characteristics of effective schools (see Cohen, 1982). Edmonds (1982:4) used only test scores to indicate effectiveness and he stated that the characteristics of effective schools are:

> (1) the principal's leadership and attention to the quality of instruction; (2) a pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus; (3) an orderly, safe climate conducive to teaching and learning; (4) teacher behaviors that convey the expectation that all students are expected to obtain at least minimum mastery; and (5) the use of measures of pupil achievement as the basis for program evaluation.

Edmonds noted that in 1982 there were more than a score of urban school districts at various stages in implementation of school improvement programs based on these five characteristics of effectiveness. The important point is that Edmonds did not measure how effective schools are in each of the five areas; he assumed that if schools are effective in all these areas at once then achievement scores will be high.

John Goodlad and his associates pioneered an approach to analyzing schools called "A Study of Schooling." According to Sirotnik and Oakes (1981:166), their "contextual appraisal system" of schools grew from Goodlad's longitudinal studies. Sirotnik and Oakes (1981:165) argued that the scores from achievement tests have little or no value for making improvements without sufficient understanding of the context within which school processes take place. At the core of their appraisal system they prescribed the ongoing collection of relevant information. They recommended that

> schools experiment with a comprehensive formative evaluation system that not only includes periodic assessment of student achievement, but also periodic assessment of teaching practices, class climates, adult working environment, parent attitudes, and so forth—that is, an array of important descriptors of the schooling context. (Sirotnik and Oakes, 1981:166)

Therefore, they operationalized this notion under four contextual domains—personal, instructional, institutional, and societal—and gathered information from teachers, students, parents, and outside observers.

This contextual appraisal system of Sirotnik and Oakes is similar to the integrated school effectiveness model of Miskel in that they are both multidimensional. They are not limited to simply observing student achievement scores to evaluate school effectiveness, as in the work of Edmonds. Although Edmonds used achievement scores to identify effective schools, he still listed characteristics or criteria of effective schools; in some respects he viewed effectiveness as being multidimensional. Also, Hersh did not formally describe a model or theory of school effectiveness but his list of criteria of effective schools demonstrates that he viewed effectiveness as being multidimensional. Thus, all the approaches to assessing school effectiveness reviewed above reflect the ability of practical researchers to describe what effective schools are like using generally similar lists of criteria. It should not be too difficult to bridge the gap between the work being done in organizational effectiveness theory and the more practical work being done to identify effective schools.

Linking organizational effectiveness and school effectiveness assessment techniques. Theorists have formulated multiple criteria of organizational effectiveness and have designed theoretical models for assessing effectiveness. However, those assessing the effectiveness of schools in a more practical sense have not designed models that are as clear conceptually. Rather, they have accumulated lists of characteristics or qualities of schools without using a conceptual framework. Quite often these lists have been derived from experience and "tradition." In practical "school evaluation" there is an inconsistency in saying that school effectiveness is measured by one criterion, student achievement scores, and then observing many school structures, processes, and activities to "evaluate" them. Very few educators or educational theorists have tried to formally define school effectiveness and to develop a theoretical framework for its assessment. Miskel's integrated model of school effectiveness is one of the exceptions.

But Miskel adapted theoretical models for application in educational settings rather than combining the approaches developed independently in each of the two areas. It seemed reasonable that the next step might be to design a model of school effectiveness using dimensions and criteria from organizational theory in combination with the lists of criteria of effective schools used in practical settings. For example, a new model might be designed using the dimensions and criteria of Mott, Steers, or Miskel in combination with the list of criteria of Hersh or Edmonds. An improved model of school effectiveness could result if organizational theorists and school effectiveness researchers were to work together.

The Influence of Leaders

According to Hicks and Gullett (1975:230), power is an essential component of most organizations because "power is necessary in all phases of an organization's formation and continuing operation." Power must be considered in studies of organizations but it is very important, also, in studies of leadership. Studies of leaders and leadership theories are not complete without careful analysis of power and its related concepts. In this section, several definitions of power and influence are discussed, a definition of influence is developed for use in this study (to be used synonymously with power), a description of the nature of power follows and a review of the bases of influence for leaders concludes the section.

Definitions of Power and Influence

There are almost as many definitions of power, broad and narrow, similar and contradictory, as there are articles or books on the subject. Pichler's definition of social power (1974:401) was used as a base in this study; he defined power as the "individual or collective ability to affect the thoughts, emotions, or actions of one or more other persons." Pichler's power is bilaterial power "that is exerted through interactions between two or more parties" (1974:402) and "interactions exist when all parties send and receive communications."

Winter's (1973:4) definition of social power is similar to that of Pichler; he stated that "social power is the ability or capacity of O to produce (consciously or unconsciously) intended effects on the behavior or emotions of another person P." Both writers believed that power is an ability or capacity, and that it exists in relationships between two or more persons.

The study of power has been somewhat difficult and unattractive for two reasons. First, there has always been this ambiguity over its definition and relationship to the terms "influence" and "control," and, second, the term power has the connotation of being corrupt or evil. Crozier (1964:145) commented on the problems in studying power:

> Moreover the use of power carries a distinct value connotation, so that idealogical, as well as methodological, reasons have been working simultaneously to cause researchers to avoid facing the issue.

But there is a positive view of social power; in fact there must be a positive view because power is recognized as being necessary, even by those who view it negatively. McClelland (1975:263) expressed this positive view in this way:

> The positive or socialized face of power is characterized by a concern for group goals, for finding those goals that will move men, for helping the group to formulate them, for taking initiative in providing means of achieving them, and for giving group members the feeling of competence they need to work hard for them.

The term "influence" was used synonymously with "power" in this study so that an alternative term which might be viewed less negatively was available. No problem arises by using the terms synonymously; Tannenbaum (1968) used the term "control" synonymously with power and influence, and Cartwright (1959) used power and influence interchangeably.

Although writers do not make a clear distinction between power, control, and influence, there has been general agreement about the meaning of authority. According to Tannenbaum (1968:5), "for most authors the term authority usually refers to the formal right to exercise control." Similarly, others (Hickson et al., 1971; Pichler, 1974) agreed with Hicks and Gullett (1975:230) who stated that "authority may be thought of as legitimate power." In this study authority was assumed to be legitimate power or influence derived from a formally defined position of leadership.

Pichler (1974:411) (whose definition of power was adopted for this study) used the term influence to "designate power that is based on personal resources." In other words it is a form of power which persons may have depending on their personal qualities and characteristics. The following definition assumed for the purpose of this study was based on Pichler's definitions of power and influence. Influence is defined as the ability of an individual to affect the thoughts, emotions, or actions of one or more persons, based on personal resources as well as the authority of one's office. Thus, the influence of school principals consists of the legitimate power of their office or position and the power resulting from their personal qualities and characteristics.

The Nature of Power or Influence

The understanding that power or influence is an ability of a person or a capacity possessed by a person is implicit in the definition of influence above. This understanding was considered necessary to pursue the purpose of this study; to identify the bases of influence for leaders seems more useful if it is possible to increase the amount of influence possessed by leaders. This personal or "psychological" interpretation of influence is one of the two important conceptual bases for analyzing influence and related concepts.

The other conceptual base is the "situational" interpretation in which "leaders have power because they are in the right position, or because they happen to have abilities that are required by the situation at that moment" (Winter, 1973:11). Rather than being an ability possessed by a person, influence is something a person may have, or not have, depending on the circumstances at a particular time; as the circumstances change so does the level of influence.

Winter (1973:17) attempted to work out some resolution between these two perspectives by focusing on the social psychological theory and research on leadership. He concluded that

> we have to distinguish between the scope of potential power, which is often, though not always, set by the situation, and the inclination to expand and use that power, which may be more closely related to individual motives.
>
> When we look at the personal and the situational perspectives on power in this way, I think that they can be reconciled. While there is abundant evidence for the importance of the situation, there is also evidence that individual factors and motives affect a person's power—not instead of the situation or in opposition to it, but in combination with situation factors. (Winter, 1973:16)

Winter noted that many of the more recent reviews of research on leadership supported his conclusion. The evidence presented below suggests that the ways for leaders to increase their level of influence are related to both psychological and situational variables.

Both Winter and McClelland have written much about the "power motive" in leaders. By power motive Winter (1973:17) meant

> a disposition to strive for certain kinds of goals, or to be affected by certain kinds of incentives. People who have the power motive, or who strive for power, are trying to bring about a certain state of affairs—they want to feel 'power' or 'more powerful than . . . .' Power is their goal.

McClelland (1975:5) refers to "that desire for power which plays a major role in shaping of the human condition," or "the need for Power, defined as a thought about having impact" (McClelland, 1975:7).

The important conclusion is that leaders (or persons striving to become leaders) have, in varying degrees, a need for power. The fact that they have a psychological need to influence others, to strive for certain goals, to shape the human condition or to have an impact should not be viewed negatively. To need to feel power is not "worse" or "more evil" than to need to feel achievement, or affiliation, or recognition. Persons who are motivated by a need for power are necessary in leadership positions because of the nature of the leadership role. Those who are in leadership positions should be motivated, at least to some degree, by a need for power. As McClelland (1975: 254) stated, "thus, leadership and power appear as two closely related concepts, and if we want to understand better effective leadership, we may begin by studying the power motive in thought and action."

Rather than discussing in detail the need for power, it is sufficient to recognize simply that many leaders are motivated by a need to have influence, to lead others toward certain goals. The relationship between leadership and influence is explained more fully in a subsequent section on leadership.

The Bases of Influence for Leaders

Numerous writers have provided categories or typologies of power. Etzioni (1961:5) described coercive power, remunerative power, and normative power. Hicks and Gullett (1975:246) classified power under six headings; physical, economic, knowledge, performance, personality, positional, and ideological. The five categories of French and Raven (1959:155)—reward, coercion, referent, legitimate, and expert—are very similar to those of Hicks and Gullett and seem to have appeared most often in reviews of the literature on power. In his "Handbook of Leadership," Stogdill (1974:291) demonstrated the dominance of this typology of French and Raven by his extensive review of the research on each of the categories. These are described below.

French and Raven (1959:145) defined reward power as "power whose basis is the ability to reward" and, according to Stogdill (1974:287), it "implies the ability of one individual to facilitate the attainment of desired outcomes by others." Followers must perceive that a leader is able to, and will, provide promised rewards, using a fair method for distributing them. Reward power can be lost if followers perceive that promised rewards are not forthcoming, or that fairness is not being exercised.

Coercive power is very similar to reward power. It is based on the ability to impose penalties and, as with reward power, followers must perceive that a leader is able to, and will, impose penalties fairly. In his review of the research on coercive power, Stogdill (1974:287) found "that threat of punishment tends to induce compliance" but it is important to realize that "leaders exercising coercive power are found less attractive than those using other methods of influence."

French and Raven suggested that legitimate power actually has three bases. Stogdill (1974:290) gave these in summary form to be

> (1) cultural values endowing some members with the right to exercise power, (2) occupancy of a position reorganized to confer authority, and (3) appointment of designation by a legitimizing agent.

Legitimate power depends upon the norms and expectations of the group regarding the behavior appropriate for particular roles. Thus, when leaders are appointed to certain positions they receive authority through the agent which appointed them, and through the followers who accept or recognize the authority of the position. Legitimate power may decrease if leaders try to go beyond the boundaries of their authority or, if for some reason, the followers perceive that the authority inherent in the position is being used unfairly or unjustly. For the purpose of this study it seemed reasonable to simplify the understanding of legitimate power to be the authority of position, as defined earlier in this section.

Referent power is derived from a strong sense of oneness or the desire for such an identity (French and Raven, 1959:161). According to Stogdill (1974 285), it is based on "follower liking and respect for the leader" and "the experimental results suggest that being liked and accepted by group members gives the leader more influence. . . ."

Expert power is based on the perception of the followers that the leader has some special knowledge or expertise. His review of research of expert power demonstrated to Stogdill that "group members tend to defer to the perceived expert" and "perceived expertness tends to legitimize the leadership role."

The five types of power have different bases but they are somewhat dependent on each other. In other words, the use of one type of power in a particular manner may affect, positively or negatively, one or more of the other types. For example, consistently fair use of reward power will increase referent power of leaders, whereas, the improper use of coercive power will decrease referent power and even erode legitimate power.

Concluding Statement

The definition of influence developed for this study (Chapter 1) was based on Pichler's (1974) definitions of social power and influence and it included implicitly the authority or legitimate power of office or position. The definition reflected the "psychological" interpretation of influence, that influence is an ability of a person or a capacity possessed by a person which may be increased. Nevertheless, it was recognized that the amount of influence of an individual at a particular time is also dependent upon circumstances. Thus, level of influence is a consequence of both psychological and situational variables (Winter, 1973). The five bases of influence defined by French and Raven (1959) were adopted as the variables which determine the level of influence of leaders.

The "power motive" discussed by Winter (1973) and McClelland (1975) is, in a positive sense, a psychological need of individuals who want to influence others or who want to strive for certain goals; it is an important motivating force in those who want to be leaders. Thus "power motive" helps to explain the close relationship between level of influence and leader effectiveness.

Leadership

The discussion below focuses on definitions of leadership which support the understanding of influence emphasized above. Following the discussion of definitions of leadership, the literature on leader effectiveness, functions of leadership and the leadership role of principals is reviewed.

The Concept of Leadership

In his essay entitled "The Ambiguity of Leadership" Pfeffer (1978:14) stated that "in spite of the voluminous research on leadership, the definition and the dimensions of the concept remain uncertain." Stogdill (1974:7) observed that "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept." He classified all the definitions or conceptual approaches under eleven headings. Three of these—leadership as exercise of influence, as a power relationship, and as an instrument of goal achievement—seemed to be appropriate for this study because they reflected the understanding of influence that was chosen.

Under the heading "Leadership as Exercise of Influence" Stogdill (1974:10) cited Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) who defined leadership as "interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed . . . toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals." Also, he cited Hollander and Julian (1965) who suggested that "leadership in the broadest sense implies the presence of a particular influence relationship between two or more persons." Under the other two headings Stogdill (1974:12) discussed "leadership in terms of differential power relationships" as developed by French and Raven (1959) and the fact that numerous theorists have defined leadership "in terms of its instrumental value for accomplishment of group goals and satisfaction of needs." These definitions of leadership indicate that some theorists have considered influence and leadership to be very closely related. Leaders use their influence in their relationships with others to direct the group toward accomplishment of certain goals.

Burns (1978:18), who has written extensively on leadership, stated that "like power, leadership is relational, collective, and purposeful. Leadership shares with power the central function of achieving purpose." After emphasizing that the crucial variable is purpose, Burns (1978:19) defined leadership as "leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations—the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations—of both leaders and followers."

This definition emphasizes that leaders should pay attention to the needs and motives of their followers as well as their own; this is in agreement with those theorists mentioned above who defined leadership in terms of its instrumental value for accomplishment of group goals and needs. Also, this perspective supports a more positive view of how leaders should use their influence effectively.

Being able to define what leadership means does not ensure effective leadership. The efforts of theorists and researchers to identify the behavior of effective leaders are outlined below.

Leader Effectiveness

The search for an understanding of why some leaders are effective and some are not has gone on for many decades and has produced several different approaches to the study of leadership. In the first half of this century the search for "traits" or characteristics of effective leaders attracted much attention from researchers and scholars but their success in this area was limited. Both the traits and the styles perspective did not take into account the situations under which leaders work. Thus researchers turned to the "identification of the situational conditions or contingencies [under which] . . . certain traits and behaviors would be effective" (Rutherford et al., 1983:11). Leader effectiveness is no longer explained in terms of traits or behaviors (characteristics of the leader) but in terms of how traits and/or behaviors interact with various situational variables (characteristics of the group or organization) to produce effective leadership.

Fiedler's "Contingency Model" of leader effectiveness is one of the well-known theories that takes situational variables into account. In the testing of his theory, Fiedler (1967:9) evaluated

> leader effectiveness in terms of group performance on the group's primary assigned task. . . . Morale and member satisfaction, while certainly affected by the leader's behavior, are here seen as interesting by-products rather than as measures of task-group performance.

Although Fiedler's model of leadership is "the most widely researched on leadership," according to Bass (1981:341), "at the same time, it is the most widely criticized." (The controversy is over what is being measured in Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) questionnaire.)

After an extensive review of the research on Fiedler's model, Bass (1981:357) stated the following in his concluding remarks:

> The Contingency Model offers a remedial plan for increasing leader effectiveness different from all other leadership theories. . . . Fiedler argues that changing leader-member relations or task structure or a leader's position power is easier than changing a leader's personality.

The controversy over Fiedler's instrumentation should not detract from the fact that his work is a major contribution in the study of leader effectiveness. There are at least three implications to be drawn from his work that are pertinent in this study.

First of all, Fiedler considered group morale and member satisfaction to be affected by the behavior of leaders, although he did not use them in measuring leader effectiveness. Second, Fiedler's theory implies that some type of relationship exists among the satisfaction of leaders, their type of leadership (task-oriented or relationship-oriented), the favorableness of their situation, and their effectiveness as a leader. Third, Fiedler's theory is based on the understanding that leadership is the use of influence by leaders to direct the behavior of followers to complete tasks or accomplish goals. The first of these implications adds support to the use of staff morale and organizational members satisfaction as indicators of leader effectiveness. The other two implications add support to the theoretical position underlying this study.

The two dominant styles of leadership identified and studied by Fiedler are similar to the two major factors of leader behavior identified and studied through the Ohio State Leadership Studies. Fiedler's "achieving good interpersonal relations" style corresponds in some respects to the factor "consideration" and his "task performance" to the second factor "initiating structure." Bass (1981:358) described consideration as "the extent to which a leader exhibited concern for the welfare of the other members of the group" and he described initiating structure as "the extent to which a leader initiated activity in the group, organized it, and defined the way it was to be done." These two factors of effective leader behavior were identified by Hemphill (1949) and his associates in their work in the Ohio State Leadership Studies. In his summary of the research on consideration and initiation of structure, Stogdill (1974:140) concluded that "research in a variety of situations indicates that leaders are rated as more effective when they score high in both consideration and initiating structure."

In this section, evidence has been provided to show that effective leadership may be viewed as a combination of directing a group (initiating structure) toward completing tasks or accomplishing goals while, at the same time, attending to the group morale and individual satisfaction (consideration). Further evidence is provided in this statement by Steers (1977:155):

> Leadership can be viewed as a multidimensional process, consisting of at least two types of activities. One type of activity is directed toward task accomplishment. Such activities are said to be instrumental in that they are aimed at securing employee effort on task-relevant activities. In addition, leadership can serve a variety of socio-emotional activities. That is, it is important for a leader to be concerned with maintaining stability in the work group and enhancing the personal need satisfaction of group members.

The effectiveness of these styles, behaviors, or dimensions of leadership depends upon the situation in which they are applied. In the next section more information is provided on leader behavior, that is on what effective leaders do in performing their leadership role.

Functions of Leadership

In his revision of "Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership," Bass (1981:24) listed the following leadership functions, identified by behavioralists in their research on basic group processes and how the leadership role emerges:

defining objectives and maintaining goal direction
providing means for goal attainment
providing and maintaining group structure
facilitating group action and interaction
maintaining group cohesiveness and member satisfaction
facilitating group task performance.

The functions of leadership discussed by Steers (1977:155) may be listed in a similar fashion:

1. coordinating and directing human behavior toward task accomplishment;

2. maintaining stability by allowing for rapid adjustment and adaption to changing environmental conditions;

3. coordinating internal organization units; and

4. facilitating personal need satisfaction and personal goal attainment of staff members.

Also, Steers (1977:145) stated that "a common characteristic of effective leaders is the ability to make decisions that are appropriate, timely and acceptable." Although decision-making may be involved in each of the four functions of leadership described by Steers, it may also be viewed as a separate function.

The two lists of leadership functions described above are very much alike and are little more than expansions of the two dimensions presented in the previous section. The overall emphasis in both lists is on task or goal accomplishment and the maintenance of the satisfaction of group members.

To this point the focus has been on leadership in general without reference to specific types of groups or organizations. In the next section, the focus is on the leadership role of school principals.

Principals as Effective Leaders

Very recently, Murphy et al. (1983) described their work in the School Effectiveness Program at the Santa Clara County Office of Education, U.S.A. In their list of variables that "have been consistently related to school effectiveness," Murphy et al. (1983:137) placed the following item first on the list: "strong administrative leadership, especially in the areas of instruction and curriculum." According to Murphy et al. (1983:138), "in the School Effectiveness Program model, leadership is divided into three areas: instructional leadership, school academic climate leadership, and school social climate leadership." Without differentiating these three types of leadership, they go on to describe their conceptual model of instructional leadership. Their work demonstrates the current emphasis on the "instructional" aspect of the principal's leadership role as a variable that is closely related to school effectiveness. However, Murphy et al. (1983:138) cited numerous writers to support their statement that "at the very time that the importance of instructional leadership for school effectiveness is being documented, the minimal role generally played by principals is also being confirmed." Thus, it seems that principals have played a small role in instructional matters although researchers are finding evidence that they should be playing a much larger role.

The importance of the leadership role of principals has been recognized for some time. Over twenty years ago Downey (1961:11) observed that "today, the principal is expected to be the educational leader of his school" and he argued that there were four developable skills necessary for effective performance in the principalship. Downey (1961:12) identified the following administrative skills which correspond to four specific roles that an educational leader must assume:

> First, he must be an efficient business manager; second, he must be an influential leader of people; third, he must be a knowledgeable curriculum developer; and finally, he must be a sensitive agent of organizational change and improvement. The skills corresponding, respectively, to these roles are (1) technical-managerial skills, (2) human-managerial skills, (3) technical educational skills, and (4) speculative-creative skills.

The human-managerial skills are those particularly related to the understanding of leadership assumed in this study. Downey (1961:12) defined these skills as "those required to stimulate and motivate organization members to maximum realization of the organization's purpose." This educational or "instructional" leadership role of principals continues to be of interest to researchers: evidence of this is given below.

Leithwood (1982) reviewed twenty-four studies in his report, "The Principals' Role in Improving School Effectiveness: State-of-the-Art of Research in Canada." Eleven of these studies "attempted to identify characteristics of the effective principal or effective principal behavior," according to Leithwood (1982:10), and three of these reported findings relevant to a school goals orientation and/or a curriculum or instruction emphasis (Wilson, 1981; Maynes, 1982; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982). In his discussion of the independent variables related to school effectiveness, Leithwood (1982:11) reported the following:

> Independent variables identified by Wilson (1981) included principals' orientation toward school goals, the nature of goals adhered to, orientation toward teacher instruction and principals' integration into the school community. . . . Maynes (1982) offered a twofold classification of independent variables: the principals' curriculum role and the principals' management role. . . . Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) identified some twenty-one promising independent variables which they classified as the 'goals' the principal pursues, the 'factors' (in-class, in-school) principals attempt to influence to achieve their goals and 'strategies' used to influence the nature of factors.

The study by Wilson clearly supports leader behavior directed toward accomplishing organizational goals, as well as an orientation toward instruction. The two categories offered by Maynes are congruent with the technical-managerial and technical-educational skills proposed by Downey (above). The three categories of variables identified by Leithwood and Montgomery imply a leadership role involving the use of influence in accomplishing goals. However, the goals are those of the principal rather than those of the school—these two sets of goals are not necessarily incompatible.

In his paper "New Direction in the Study of the Principalship," Smyth (1982) cited numerous studies as evidence that the instructional leadership role of principals is an important determinant of effective or successful schools (Doll, 1969; Weber, 1971; Ellis, 1975; Armor et al., 1976; Wellisch et al., 1976, 1977, 1978; Brookover and Lezotte, 1977; Kean et al., 1979; Howey, 1980). For example, Wellisch et al. (1977, 1978) studied the instructional leadership role of the principals in nine successful schools and thirteen non-successful schools. As stated by Smyth (1982:2),

> Three important ways were found in which principals in successful schools were able to make a difference in student achievement:
>
> 1. Commitment to instruction in basic skills, as demonstrated by personal involvement in reviews of teaching performance.
>
> 2. Communication to teachers of the principal's point of view concerning instruction, through such mechanisms as faculty meetings and regular review and discussion of teaching performance.
>
> 3. Involvement by the principal in instruction-related tasks through such methods as planning and evaluating instructional programs of the school.

Other lists of behaviors of instructional leaders were provided by Rutherford, Hord, and Huling (1983) who reviewed the literature on the principal searching for ways of describing them as leaders. Rutherford et al. (1983:14) listed the following "six behaviors that contributed to effective instructional leadership," as identified by Cotton and Savard (1980) who drew them from twenty-seven reports:

1. frequent observation and/or participation in classroom instruction;

2. communicating clearly to staff what is expected of them as facilitators of the instructional program;

3. making decisions about the instructional program;

4. coordinating the instructional program;

5. being actively involved in planning and evaluating the instructional program; and

6. having and communicating high standards/expectations for the instructional program.

Also, Rutherford et al. (1983:14) listed the following "nine recurrent behaviors that are displayed by principals who run good schools," as identified by Persell and Cookson (1982) in a review of more than seventy-five studies:

(1) commitment to academic goals
(2) creating a climate of high expectations
(3) functioning as an instructional leader
(4) being a forceful and dynamic leader
(5) consulting effectively with others
(6) creating order and discipline
(7) marshalling resources
(8) using time well
(9) evaluating results.

Both of these lists provide further support for the argument that principals who wish to influence the "academic success" of students should be very attentive to improving, through active involvement and supervision, academic programs and instructional activities. Also, the second list suggests ways by which principals can be good organizational leaders as well as instructional leaders; they must attend to creating a secure work environment and to managing effectively personnel and physical resources.

Summary

Leadership may be viewed as the use of influence to direct others toward accomplishing goals that are acceptable to group members. More specifically, effective leadership may be viewed as a combination of directing a group toward completing tasks or accomplishing goals, while, at the same time, attending to group morale and individual satisfaction. Evidence for this position was provided from the literature on leadership effectiveness and the behavior or functions of leadership.

In the literature on principals as effective leaders, the emphasis seems to be on instructional leadership, as compared to organizational leadership. Effective instructional leadership requires a strong orientation in the role of the principalship toward improvement of instruction and curricula. Yet, principal effectiveness has been defined more broadly than instructional leadership. Although effective principals are instructional leaders, they are also effective administrators or managers; they must direct, integrate, and coordinate the activities of groups or individuals in their schools while attending to group and individual needs. Thus the literature describing the behavior of effective principals is somewhat congruent with the more general literature describing the behavior of effective leaders.

Conceptual Framework of the Study

Four bodies of literature have been reviewed in this chapter which correspond to the major variables in this study: job satisfaction, school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence. This conceptual framework summarizes the nature of job satisfaction and defines the relationships assumed to exist among the major variables.

The Nature of Job Satisfaction

The dominant theories of job satisfaction have been derived from theories of work motivation which were based on more general theories of motivational psychology. In the more recent theories of motivation, the behavior of individuals was assumed to be more than a reaction to various stimuli (S-R approach of Skinner); according to psychologists such as Weiner (1972) and Bolles (1974), individuals use cognitive processes to make decisions and choices (S-C-R approach). Several important theories of work motivation were based on this cognitive approach to motivation.

Vroom's (1964) instrumentality-valence theory of work motivation is a cognitive theory stated in terms of expectancies, values and perceptions of future consequences; the model of work motivation of Porter and Lawler (1968) and Lawler's (1973) model of facet satisfaction were based upon Vroom's theory. But not all theories of work motivation and/or job satisfaction were derived from the cognitive approach to motivation. One of the most important theories, Herzberg's (1959,1966) motivation-hygiene theory, was built upon Maslow's (1943) need-fulfillment theory. More recently, Locke's (1976) value theory of job satisfaction integrated characteristics of the theories of Vroom, Lawler and Herzberg and, consequently, it was chosen as the underlying approach to job satisfaction to be used in this study.

In Locke's definition of job satisfaction mentioned in Chapter 1, job values and needs play a role in determining the level of job satisfaction of individuals. Underlying Locke's theory is the position that individuals have a "value hierarchy" which is dependent upon their hierarchy of needs. Also underlying his theory is Lawler's (1973) belief that satisfaction with particular facets of the job should be weighted as to importance in determining overall job satisfaction. Perception, as well as values and needs, play an important role in determining job satisfaction. In Locke's definition stated in

Chapter 1, job satisfaction results from "the perception of one's job" or, in his definition stated in this chapter, it results from "the appraisal of one's job." Clearly, Locke's theory is cognitive in that cognitive processes operate in individuals to determine how their perceptions of the job situation will affect their level of job satisfaction.

In this study an effort was made to determine the extent to which selected perceptions of the role of high school principals are related to their level of job satisfaction. For the reasons put forward in Chapter 1, principals' perceptions of their school's effectiveness, their own leader effectiveness and their level of influence were selected as the major variables. The possible relationships between job satisfaction and these role perceptions are described below.

Relationships between Job Satisfaction and the Role Perceptions in the Study

The possible relationships between overall job satisfaction and perceptions of overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence are illustrated in Figure 2.1. Each of these variables was defined operationally in Chapter 1: the perceived levels of each were those as rated by the respondents in the study. In Figure 2.1, the relationships among these four major variables are represented by nondirectional lines to illustrate that causal relationships were not assumed. Although Locke's theory was based on the assumption that perceptions of the job affect levels of job satisfaction, this assumption was not made in this study because of the nature of the particular role perceptions. Perceptions of school effectiveness,

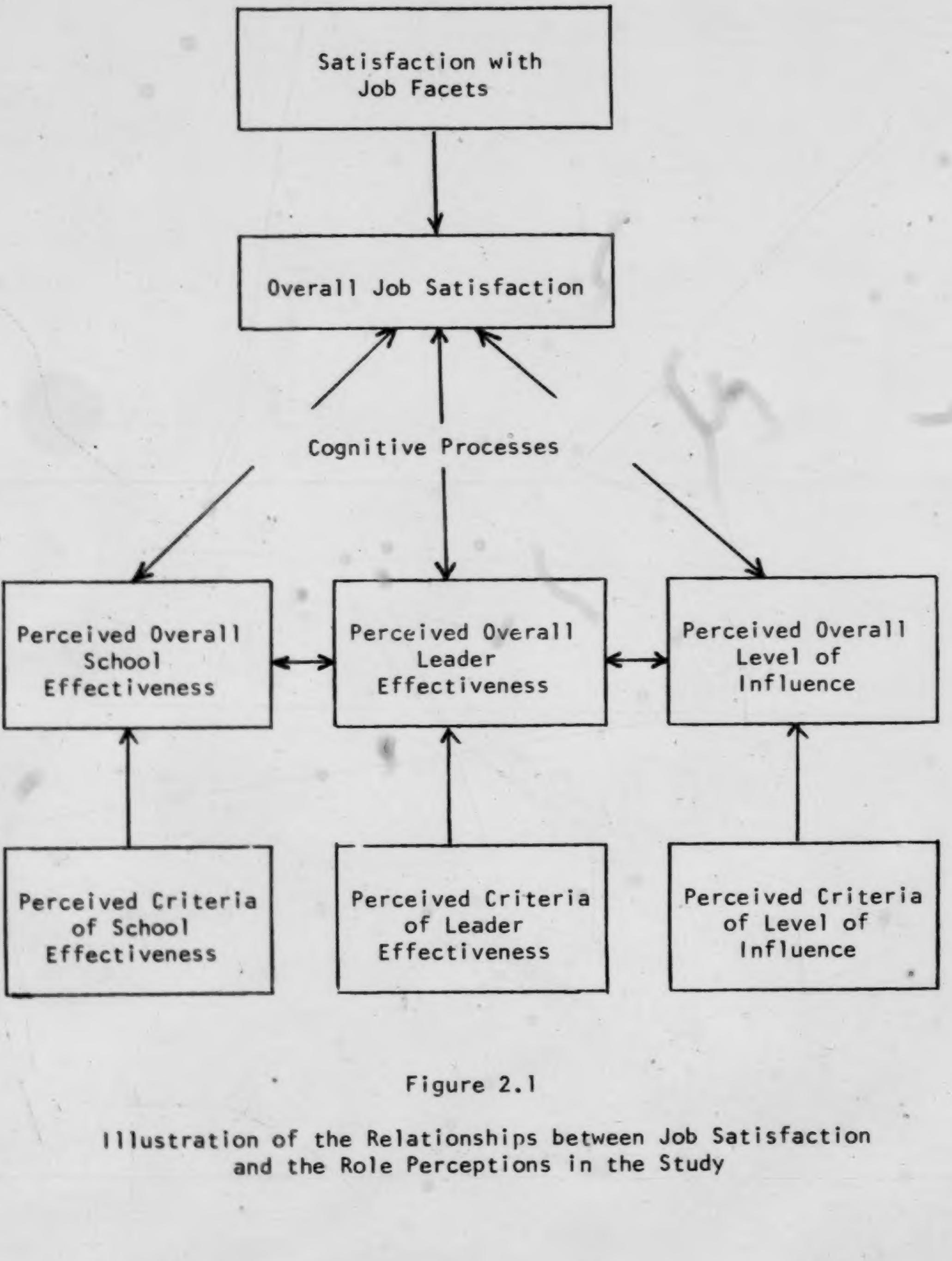
Satisfaction with Job Facets
Overall Job Satisfaction
Cognitive Processes
Perceived Overall School Effectiveness
Perceived Overall Leader Effectiveness
Perceived Overall Level of Influence
Perceived Criteria of School Effectiveness
Perceived Criteria of Leader Effectiveness
Perceived Criteria of Level of Influence

Figure 2.1

Illustration of the Relationships between Job Satisfaction and the Role Perceptions in the Study leader effectiveness and level of influence were seen as criteria of the performance or productivity of principals; because research had not clearly identified a causal relationship between job satisfaction and productivity (Locke, 1976 and Gruneberg, 1979), causal relationships between overall job satisfaction and perceptions of overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence were not assumed.

For reasons explained in the literature review, relationships were assumed to exist between perceptions of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness and between perceptions of leader effectiveness and level of influence. Furthermore, these relationships were assumed to exist because of cognitive processes operating within individuals: in other words, the nondirectional lines in Figure 2.1 represent cognitive processes.

The relationship between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with facets of the job is illustrated as a causal relationship in Figure 2.1. Lawler (1973) believed,as did Locke, that overall job satisfaction is an affective reaction to the total work role which is determined by satisfaction with all facets of the job, and he believed that some facets should be weighted more than others. Underlying this study was the assumption that principals are able to rate their level of satisfaction with facets of the job and their level of overall job satisfaction but particular facets are stronger predictors of overall satisfaction than others.

A similar assumption was made with respect to the relationship between each of the role perceptions, perceived overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence, and perceptions of various criteria of each. The multidimensional nature of each of these variables was emphasized in the review of the literature and, in Figure 2.1, the causal relationships between the single, "overall" variables and their various criteria are illustrated. As in the case of job satisfaction, the arrows in the figure illustrate that principals are able to rate their perceived levels of overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence but their rating is affected by their perceived levels of the various criteria of each "overall" variable. Furthermore, perceptions of particular criteria are stronger predictors of each "overall" variable than others.

This conceptual framework was provided to demonstrate the underlying theoretical assumptions of this study and, therefore, the relationships which were investigated. The research methodology developed to investigate these relationships is described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

Research Methodology

This chapter describes the research methodology used in the study. The chapter is organized in three sections. In the first section, the design and pilot-testing of the various instruments in the questionnaire are explained and the development of the interview schedule is described. In the second section, the population, procedures for distributing and collecting questionnaires, the interview sample and the interview process are described. In the third section, the procedures used to analyze the written responses from the questionnaires and the interviews, the statistical analysis of the data from the questionnaire, and the reliability and validity of the instruments are described.

The Research Instruments

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire approach was chosen to survey the population of high school principals in Alberta partly because it is convenient and relatively inexpensive. In addition to these advantages, Mouly (1978:189) noted that the questionnaire approach enables the researcher to preserve anonymity (thus it may elicit more candid responses) and it "allows greater uniformity in the way questions are asked . . . [ensuring] greater comparability in the responses." The various sections of the questionnaire developed for this study, entitled "Perceptions of Senior High School Principals of Selected

Aspects of Their Role and Their Job Satisfaction," are described below. A copy of the questionnaire is included in Appendix A. Because the data were collected within the context of a larger study, the questionnaire contained a section on "opinions" and one instrument—"Administrative Tasks and Responsibilities"—which were not used in this study.

School and personal data. The first two sections of the questionnaire were designed to collect information to describe the nature of the high school and some personal characteristics of the principal. In the first of these labelled "School Data," respondents described the geographic setting of their school, the type of school system, and the grades, number of students, teachers, vice-principals and department heads in their school. Generally, this information was sought as an indication of the nature and magnitude of the principal's responsibilities and the degree of administrative assistance. In the second section, entitled "Personal Data," respondents indicated their sex, age, years in present position, experience prior to the principalship, long-term career aspirations and formal administrative training or education. This information was sought for use in analyzing possible relationships between personal characteristics of principals and their level of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction. The section labelled "Job Satisfaction" was designed to measure levels of satisfaction with thirty-five facets of the job and to measure the overall level of job satisfaction using a single item. This Job Satisfaction instrument was based on Section D of Rice's (1978) questionnaire, "Sources of Principal Satisfaction." Rice had categorized forty-five items under five headings—Working Conditions, Personnel-Related Matters, School-Related Matters, District-Related Matters, and Occupation-Related Matters. These same headings were adopted with one minor change; "School-Related Matters" was changed to "Role-Related Matters." Deletions of items and minor modifications of a few items were made to Rice's instrument to make it as short as possible and to make it more suitable for high school principals; Rice's sample included elementary school principals as well as high school principals. The use of a single item to measure overall job satisfaction was a departure from Rice's statistical treatment of four items in Section B of his questionnaire, entitled "Overall Satisfaction."

As a single measure of overall job satisfaction, Rice planned to use the mean score of the four items in his Overall Satisfaction instrument—overall satisfaction and satisfaction with school effectiveness, social relations, and use of abilities. However, the intercorrelation of the four variables did not support this plan. Therefore, Rice (1978:95) decided to use only the single item "overall satisfaction" because "the relationship between this variable and the mean score of the four items was both significant and important (r = .84)" and because "Porter and Lawler (1968:43) argued that the use of a global measure would yield a reasonable approximation of what would be obtained by some composite of the ratings." Evidence to support Rice's research findings and his decision to use the single item was found in the study of teacher satisfaction by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe

(1979). Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979:89) used a single, self-reported measure of overall job satisfaction because "a number of authors have argued that this has proved to be the most useful measure of overall job satisfaction, and it has been very widely employed (Jessup and Jessup, 1975)." Thus, in this study, principals were asked in a single item to rate "your overall feeling of satisfaction with your job," after they had responded to the thirty-five items of facet satisfaction.

The rating scale. The rating scale used in this job satisfaction instrument was identical to that used by Rice. This six-point scale, ranging from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied, contained no "neutral" or "undecided" response. Respondents were forced to choose a response from either three levels of dissatisfaction or three levels of satisfaction. To support this decision to use no neutral response, Rice (1978:76) cited Porter et al. (1975:53) who stated that "people are rarely neutral about things they perceive or experience . . . [and] tend to evaluate most things in terms of whether they like or dislike them." Rice (1978:76) also cited Shaw and Wright (1967:21) who held the position that "attitudes always have a positive or negative sign; if they have no sign (i.e., are neutral or at the zero point) they cannot be called attitudes at all." This position was very much in line with other theoretical positions related to attitudes and cognitive processes accepted in this study.

School effectiveness. In the design of this instrument dimensions of effectiveness were chosen from the broad literature on organizational effectiveness. The criteria of effective schools identified by Hersh (1982) were chosen as the basic criteria, to be linked in some way to criteria or dimensions from organizational effectiveness theories or models. This link was made indirectly by using some aspects of the model of school effectiveness adapted by Miskel (1982) and Miskel et al. (1979), from Mott's (1972) model of organizational effectiveness. Therefore, the fourteen criteria of school effectiveness used in this study reflect those of Hersh (1982), Miskel et al. (1979), and Mott (1972).

Specifically, the first six criteria or items in the School Effectiveness Instrument are measures of a school's "productivity," one of the indicators in the model of Miskel et al. Items 11 and 12 of the instrument reflect other indicators of their model, adaptability and flexibility. The remaining items reflect, explicitly or implicitly, the criteria identified by Hersh.

As in the measurement of overall job satisfaction, overall school effectiveness was measured using a single item. It was assumed that principals are able to rate the overall effectiveness of their own school in the same way that they are able to rate their overall job satisfaction--to rate each of these variables requires that individuals use perceptual methods.

Justification for using perceptual methods to measure job characteristics has been provided by Sims, Szilagyi and Keller (1976: 196), who stated that "it is not the objective characteristic of the job but how the individual perceives his job that is the important determinant of the influence of the job on the individual's satisfaction."

Sims et al. (1976) developed a job characteristics instrument (the Job Characteristic Inventory) and studied its reliability and validity for many different organizations. The results of their study demonstrated that the instrument appeared to have acceptable validity and reliability characteristics. They reported that the results of two other studies with similar objectives—Hackman and Oldham (1975) and Stone and Porter (1975)—provided support for the results of their study. According to Sims et al. (1976:210),

> taken together, these three projects [along with the original Hackman and Lawler research (1971)] provide powerful evidence of the reliability and the discriminant validity of perceptual methods of measuring job characteristics over a wide spectrum of jobs in many organizations.

The type of rating scale to measure school effectiveness was identical to that used to measure job satisfaction. For the same reasons put forward above, a six-point scale ranging from highly ineffective to highly effective, with no neutral position, was used. This rating scale was also used in the instrument to measure leader effectiveness.

The final question in the School Effectiveness Instrument required an open, written response: "In your opinion, what are the three most important indicators (from those above or others) of the effectiveness of a senior high school?" This listing by principals of the most important indicators of school effectiveness was meant to serve as a type of "ranking" of the other items in the instrument, as well as a check to see if any major criteria of effectiveness were missing. Because of the increasing public and professional attention to school effectiveness, at the time, and the greater pressure to raise student performance levels, it was assumed that high school principals have quite definite opinions about what major characteristics identify an effective high school. Thus, they would find this question relatively easy to answer compared to a similar question related to leader effectiveness or level of influence.

Leader effectiveness. The dimensions or items in this instrument for measuring the effectiveness of principals as leaders were selected from a review of the literature on effective leadership and the functions of leadership. The instrument contains ten items—dimensions of leader effectiveness—plus one item to measure the principal's "overall effectiveness as a leader." The ten dimensions reflect the definition of leadership chosen in this study, the multidimensional nature of leadership described by Steers (1977)—including his functions of leadership—and the functions of leadership listed by Stogdill (1974) or Bass (1981). The ten dimensions in this instrument represent explicitly or implicitly, a combining of all the dimensions from these major sources to produce a list of discrete variables.

The use of a single overall effectiveness item and a six-point rating scale was identical to the approach followed in the school effectiveness instrument.

Principal's level of influence. As noted in Chapter 1, the five bases of power or influence defined by French and Raven (1959)—reward, coercion, referent, legitimate, and expert—were chosen for this study. Thus, this instrument for evaluating the levels of influence of principals was constructed upon these five types of influence. Items 1, 2, 6 and 7 of the instrument correspond to legitimate, referent, reward and coercion power, respectively. Collectively, items 3, 4 and 5 correspond to or represent the expert power of the principal. Three dimensions were chosen to represent expert power because the professional expertise required in the principalship is very complex.

Downey (1961:12) identified the following types of skills of effective educational leaders: technical-managerial skills, human-managerial skills, technical-educational skills, and speculative-creative skills. Items 3 and 5 of the instrument correspond respectively to technical-educational skills and speculative-creative skills; item 4, "expertise as an administrator," represents a combination of technical-managerial skills and human-managerial skills. Thus, the five bases of power of French and Raven were expanded to seven bases by distinguishing among three types of expert power.

To make this instrument consistent with the other instruments, the final item was a measure of "your overall level of influence as a principal." However the rating scale had to be modified slightly because a "negative" level or degree of influence was impossible or nonexistent.

A four-point rating scale, ranging from a high level of influence to no influence was used for all eight items in this instrument. The three points indicating some level of influence corresponded to the three "positive" points on the other scales in the questionnaire, but the point, "No influence," did not imply a neutral position. This point on the scale required a decision or choice from the respondent just as the other positions did.

Additional comments. To avoid making the questionnaire any longer, a "compulsory" set of open-response questions was not included. However the section, "Additional Comments," was placed at the end of the questionnaire to provide an opportunity for principals to express any concerns or opinions, if they wished to do so. This single question was designed to collect data which might clarify or enrich the data from the other instruments in the questionnaire.

Pilot test of questionnaire. In the development of the questionnaire to be pilot-tested, valuable advice was provided by professors, by senior officials in the Department of Education and the Alberta Teachers' Association, and by a superintendent of a large school system. Consultation was held with these practicing administrators to improve the validity of the questionnaire, by involving administrators in educational leadership positions "external" to the principalship and the academic world of theory and research.

Six full-time graduate students in Educational Administration at the University of Alberta participated in the pilot test. These were or had recently been high school principals in either Alberta, Saskatchewan or Manitoba. The participants independently reviewed all aspects and each item of the questionnaire to check for ambiguous instructions or items, the appropriateness of the rating scales, the format and comprehensiveness of the instruments, and for overlapping of any items. Participants wrote their questions, concerns or recommendations on the questionnaire and then these were discussed with each individual in a private interview. From all these recommendations final revisions were made throughout the questionnaire in preparation for distribution to principals.

The Interview Schedule

Semi-Structured Interviews

The purpose of interviewing ten principals, who had responded to the questionnaire, was to expand upon, clarify, or enrich the data collected with the questionnaires. This purpose required that the interview schedule be constructed after a complete analysis of the questionnaire data. Because the questions in the interview schedule were designed to gain further insight into this initial data, they were quite specific, thus making the interview schedule at least "semi-structured."

Semi-structured interviews are described as "Type II" interviews in Bouchard's (1976:371) four types of interviews: "Type II interviews have specified questions but leave the character of the response open." A semi-structured interview—"open-ended" or "free-response' interview—was chosen for use in this study because it was considered important to suggest as little direction as possible as to the nature of the responses. Merton, Fisk and Kendall (1956:12-14) expressed concisely the advantages of "nondirection" or of a nondirective approach in interviewing:

> As is generally recognized, one of the principal reasons for the use of interviews rather than questionnaires is to uncover a diversity of relevant responses, whether or not these have been anticipated by the inquirer. . . . The value of a nondirective approach to interviewing has become increasingly

> recognized. . . . It gives the interviewee an opportunity to express himself about matters of central significance to him rather than those presumed to be important by the interviewer. . . . And finally, it ordinarily leads the interviewee to be more articulate and expressive than in the directed interview.

These strengths of encouraging open or free responses seemed very appropriate for the purpose of interviewing in this study; the probability of clarifying and enriching the existing data would likely be increased through giving respondents freedom to express their own opinions or concerns in whatever manner they wished. Thus the necessity of using specific questions derived from the questionnaire data and the advantages of allowing open responses were accommodated using semi-structured interviews. Also, allowing respondents to speak freely was meant to serve as a more qualitative method of collecting data to be combined with the quantitative method of using a questionnaire with specific non-verbal responses.

In his paper on "triangulation," Jick (1979) put forward strong arguments for using more than one methodology to study the same phenomenon, especially if qualitative methods are combined with quantitative methods. According to Jick (1979:608-609), the overall strength of triangulation is that "it allows researchers to be more confident of their results," and in regard to the use of qualitative methods in triangulation,

> the researcher is likely to sustain a profitable closeness to the situation which allows greater sensitivity to the multiple sources of data. Qualitative data and analysis function as the glue that cements the interpretation of multimethod results.

It was anticipated that the data from the semi-structured interviews would strengthen the interpretation of the statistical data from the questionnaires. The derivation of the interview schedule from the statistical data is described below.

Design of the Interview Schedule

The analysis of the statistical data and the written responses were completed after the closing date for accepting questionnaires from respondents (this analysis is reported in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5). The analysis of the data on job satisfaction met expectations, without particular concerns or surprises. Therefore, the following question was designed to collect more evidence as to what contributes the most to overall job satisfaction or dissatisfaction:

1. (a) What gives you the most satisfaction as a high school principal?

   (b) What gives you the most dissatisfaction as a high school principal?

   (c) Describe what "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" means to you.

Part (c) of this question was included because "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" was the variable which contributed the most to overall job satisfaction, according to the stepwise multiple linear regression analysis of the data.

The complete interview schedule is included in Appendix D. For brevity, only the actual questions that were directed toward principals in the interview are reported in this section; the preambles to the questions, to introduce the questions and to help principals understand the nature of the questions, were more detailed.

Some unclear and unexpected results from the analysis of the data from the School Effectiveness and Leader Effectiveness instruments required further investigation. The analysis of the written responses in the School Effectiveness instrument did not support strongly the analysis of the statistical data in the same instrument and it provided information that seemed to be more related to leader effectiveness than school effectiveness. One concern of the researcher was that the principals' understanding of leadership as an aspect of their role, and its relationship to the effectiveness of their school, was unclear and possibly not consistent with the assumptions about leadership underlying this study. Therefore, the following questions were designed to collect more information on the principals' opinions or beliefs about leadership:

2. Describe what leadership, as an aspect of your role, means to you. In other words, would you describe the qualities, characteristics, or behavior you would hope to demonstrate as an effective leader?
3. To what degree do you believe that your effectiveness as a leader is an indicator of the effectiveness of your school?
4. (a) To what degree do you believe that the job satisfaction of individual teachers is an indicator of your effectiveness as a leader?
    (b) To what degree do you believe that their job satisfaction is an indicator of the effectiveness of the school?
    (c) Can you say which it more strongly indicates, leader effectiveness or school effectiveness?
    (d) To what degree do you believe that staff morale is an indicator of your effectiveness as a leader?
    (e) To what degree do you believe that it is an indicator of the effectiveness of the school?
    (f) Can you say which it more strongly indicates, leader effectiveness or school effectiveness?

The analysis of the data from the Principal's Level of Influence instrument did not generate striking concerns or questions, but the contributions of the bases of influence to overall level of influence were not as significantly strong or as important as was expected. The evidence suggested that other factors may contribute to the overall level of influence of principals. The final question was designed to identify some important factors that contribute to the overall level of influence:

> 5. Being a principal requires that you have a certain level of influence with teachers, students, parents, with all groups with which you must work. What contributes most to your level of influence as a principal?

The general purpose underlying the questions in the interview schedule was to collect more data related to each of the four major variables in the study, rather than data related to the relationships hypothesized between job satisfaction and each of the other variables. Priority was given to gaining further insight into the nature of each variable in anticipation that this insight would enhance the discussion of the statistically significant relationships found in the investigation.

The interview schedule was pilot-tested by three of the high school principals who had pilot-tested the questionnaire.

Data Collection

The Population

All senior high school principals in Alberta were to receive questionnaires. A "senior high school" was defined as any secondary school which has enrolled in it Grade 10 and/or Grade 11 and/or Grade 12 and which may also have enrolled in it Grade 7 and/or Grade 8 and/or Grade 9. Elementary school principals were viewed as a separate population of principals because important differences exist between the elementary school principal's role and the senior high school principal's role. These differences—which are discussed by Firestone and Herriott (1982)—are closely related to the different organizational structures, types of programs, teaching methods, characteristics and needs of students, and administrative procedures of elementary and senior high school schools. Senior high schools containing junior high grades were included in the population because the organization and administration of a senior high school is not affected to a great extent by the presence of junior high grades.

The schools in this population were identified using information from the Department of Education. An up-to-date list of all secondary schools in Alberta with senior high grades was compiled by the Student Records and Computer Services Branch and Early Childhood Services Branch of "Alberta Education." This list provided the names of principals, school addresses, and grades in the schools.

Distribution and Collection of Questionnaires

Field Services of the Faculty of Education of the University of Alberta maintains a formal communication, with respect to research projects, with the school systems of Edmonton and the surrounding school systems. Through this department, permission was obtained from the superintendents of five school systems to send questionnaires to the senior high school principals in their system. A letter seeking permission to contact principals as participants in this study (see Appendix B) was mailed to all other Alberta superintendents whose school system contained a senior high school. Most of these superintendents responded very positively to the study and no superintendents responded negatively; one superintendent supported the study but asked that one of the senior high school principals in the school system not be contacted. Thus, permission was obtained, directly or by "no reply," to send questionnaires to all but one senior high school principal in Alberta; 155 questionnaires were mailed in the last week of October, 1983.

A covering letter (Appendix C), whose purposes were to introduce the nature of the study, to request that the questionnaire be completed, and to guarantee anonymity, was mailed with the questionnaire. A self-addressed, stamped envelope and a stamped postcard containing a school identification number were also included. By completing the postcard (see Appendix C) and returning it separately, principals could indicate, without destroying their anonymity, that they had returned the questionnaire, and that they were willing to be interviewed. By the middle of November, approximately 65 percent of the questionnaires and postcards had been received.

At this time a "follow-up" letter and postcard (Appendix C) were mailed to all principals who had not returned the first postcard to indicate that they had completed the questionnaire. The purpose of this follow-up was to encourage more principals to complete the questionnaire. The follow-up proved to be very worthwhile; by the closing date for accepting questionnaires (9 December, 1983), 134 (87 percent) of the questionnaires had been returned: one questionnaire was rejected. Two questionnaires were received after the closing date, and after the statistical analysis of the data had been completed, so that the actual response rate was 88 percent.

Once the interview schedule was developed from the analysis of the questionnaire data and the pilot test was completed, the interview sample was chosen and the interviews were conducted: the interview sample and process are described below.

The Interview Sample

The interview sample of senior high school principals was chosen from those principals who indicated that they were willing to be interviewed after they had completed and returned the questionnaire. A sample size of ten was chosen because of limited time to conduct interviews and analyse the data. To choose the sample from the volunteer interviewees, a geographical boundary was set because of time and financial restrictions on travel to the schools. All senior high school principals within a fifty-mile radius of the City of Edmonton were considered as candidates if they had volunteered to be interviewed. From this group of eighteen candidates, ten principals were chosen using a table of random sampling numbers.

The Interview Process

After the principals in the interview sample were identified, the researcher contacted them by phone to request their participation and to schedule interviews at times convenient to them. The ten interviews were carried out during the last three weeks of January, 1984.

Before an actual interview was recorded on a cassette tape, the researcher tried to establish a trusting, relaxed relationship with the interviewee. To do this, the researcher, counting on his experience as a high school principal, initiated a discussion about the school and the activities going on at the time, reviewed the general nature of the questionnaire that had been completed a few months earlier, explained that the interview schedule had been derived from the analysis of the questionnaire data, and described how the interview sample had been chosen. Also, an assurance of anonymity was given, along with a brief explanation of how the data would be analysed.

During the interview, care was taken to make sure that the interviewee understood the question and had sufficient time to formulate a response to each question. The general nature of the preamble to each question may be observed in the interview schedule, Appendix D. To avoid creating a detached, unnatural, or uncomfortable atmosphere, these preambles were not read verbatim from the schedule; they were presented orally in a "conversation" form, but consistently in all interviews. The researcher was careful not to interrupt during responses and did so only to clarify a point being made or to keep the interviewee from straying too far from the topic.

After the interview, several of the principals were interested in hearing their responses to a few or all of the questions; they were given the opportunity to do so. Also, several principals had questions about the whole study or the interview; the researcher took as much time as was necessary to answer questions or provide explanations.

Data Analysis

The procedures used to analyze the data are reported below in the order that they were carried out: statistical analysis of the questionnaire data, content analysis of the written responses from the questionnaire, and analysis of the interview data. The reliability and validity of the research instruments and methods are discussed at the end of this section.

Statistical Analysis of the Questionnaire Data

Three statistical techniques were used in the analysis of the questionnaire data: Pearson product-moment correlation, stepwise multiple linear regression, and comparison of means. These techniques and their application in this study are explained below. Further explanation of their strengths and limitations is given indirectly in Chapter 5 in the reporting of the results of the statistical analysis.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to answer the first three research questions concerning relationships between overall job satisfaction and each of the major "overall" variables. Mouly (1978:284) described the following limitations of correlation coefficients:

> First the index is relatively imprecise, i.e., it fluctuates widely in repeated random sampling. Correlation coefficients are also affected by the homogeneity of the data: the smaller the range of the variable (or variables) over which the correlation is calculated, the lower the correlation tends to be. . . . The actual correlation between two variables would also be underestimated by the product-moment correlation when the relationship between the two variables is not linear as required for the proper use of r.

He emphasized that correlation is a simple descriptive technique that cannot be used to establish causation between two variables. In spite of these limitations, Mouly (1978:287) made the following statement in favor of correlational studies:

> There is . . . a growing feeling that correlational studies with their greater flexibility are what education in its present state of development needs if it is really to solve its more significant problems. Actually, correlation between naturally occurring variables or events is a powerful exploratory tool ideally suited to provide important leads in the discovery of the 'cause' of phenomena.

Because the main purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which overall job satisfaction is directly related to perceptions of overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness, and level of influence, the correlation technique was quite appropriate for investigating these relationships. Thus, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to determine the strength and direction of the relationships put forward.

Stepwise multiple linear regression, a statistical technique that is related to the correlation technique, was used to determine which facets or variables are the best predictors of overall job satisfaction, overall school effectiveness, and overall leader effectiveness (Questions 5, 6, and 7, respectively); also, this technique was used to determine which bases of influence contributed most to overall level of influence (Question 8). The new SPSS regression procedure, an "incremental" stepwise procedure, was used. Weiss (1976:332) explained this procedure in the following statement:

> The incremental stepwise procedure works from the 'bottom up.' Beginning with no predictor variables in the regression equation, variables are added which have the highest relation ship with the criterion, as indicated by their partial correlations with the criterion. As variables are added, the multiple correlation is recomputed at each step until increments in R become no longer significant.

In this way, only the variables that significantly predict the criterion are included in the regression equation. As in the other statistical techniques described, the greatest limitation of stepwise multiple linear regression is that "deviations from linearity will reduce the predictability of the criterion from the chosen subset of predictions" (Weiss, 1976:332). In spite of this limitation, this technique was deemed the most appropriate to determine the best predictors of overall job satisfaction, school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence.

Comparison of means was used to determine the extent to which overall job satisfaction was related to organizational characteristics of schools and personal characteristics of principals (Question 4). The respondents were grouped using selected characteristics as the independent variable so that the means of overall job satisfaction of the groups could be compared and substantial differences could be reported.

Finally, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to measure the strength of relationships between selected facets of job satisfaction and selected criteria or bases of school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence (Questions 9, 10 and 11). The purpose of this analysis was to gain further understanding of the relationships hypothesized between the major variables and of the nature of the major variables, particularly overall job satisfaction. The variables were selected for this analysis after all other data analysis had been completed.

Content Analysis of Written Responses from Questionnaires

Indicators of school effectiveness. Question 16 in the School Effectiveness instrument required a written response in the form of a list: "In your opinion, what are the three most important indicators (from those above or others) of the effectiveness of a senior high school?" To collapse the many indicators of school effectiveness into a compact, usable summary required a technique that would identify a set of categories with the frequencies of responses under these categories. Content analysis is a technique designed for analyzing verbal communications and, according to Travers (1969:228), "the traditional method of undertaking content analysis is that of counting the number of times that particular idea or words are presented." This traditional method of content analysis was appropriate to effectively summarize the indicators of school effectiveness listed by the principals.

In responding to this question, principals could choose indicators of school effectiveness from the fifteen items in the School Effectiveness instrument. Therefore, the fifteen items served as categories (among others) in the content analysis. In the first review of all the responses, the frequency of response under each of the fifteen "original" categories was determined, the frequency under "No Response" was determined, and some new categories were identified. The second review of all responses began with these new categories and, as the review advanced, new categories were created. If a particular response obviously expressed the same idea as one of the categories then it was counted under that category; if it expressed an idea that was different than any of the existing categories, then a new category was created; in many cases actual responses became categories. Thus, the two reviews of all responses produced two separate tables of frequencies: (1) frequencies under the original effectiveness items as categories, and (2) frequencies under the new categories identified in the content analysis. This content analysis was quite straight-forward because very few responses were difficult to interpret and categorize. The indicators of school effectiveness were expressed in simple phrases or well-known terms by most respondents.

The final step in this analysis was to compare the two tables of frequencies produced from the first and second review. By comparing the categories in the tables, similar categories were identified and then combined or collapsed; all categories were combined with similar categories or listed separately to produce a third table of frequencies.

The additional comments. The content analysis of the written responses to the final question on the questionnaire was not as simple or straight forward. In the final section, "Additional Comments," forty-three (27 percent) of the principals responded to this request: "Please add any comments that you wish to make on the topics of job satisfaction, leader effectiveness, level of influence, and school effectiveness, as these relate to the role of senior high school principals." After a careful review of all responses it was evident that a simple categorization and frequency count would not adequately describe the data. Many of the respondents expressed personal feelings and opinions in descriptive terms which could not be justifiably reduced to a simple category or heading. Therefore, the data were grouped into a few sections to make them more manageable, but in such a way as to not reduce their descriptive quality.

The data were grouped under the following headings: Job Satisfaction, School Effectiveness, Principal Effectiveness, Level of Influence, Role of the Principal, and Other Comments. These headings were chosen after a careful review of the data suggested that most of the comments were related to either one of the major variables or to the role of the principal—the term "principal effectiveness" replaced "leader effectiveness" because it was used by most of the respondents. The frequencies of responses under these headings were summarized in a table.

Once the responses were grouped, further analysis was carried out to determine the nature of the data under each heading. The analysis focused on the comments which provided insights particularly useful in understanding the nature of the major variables. The comments which more richly described job satisfaction or dissatisfaction were listed independently. The comments on school effectiveness, principal effectiveness, level of influence, and the role of the principal (and "Other Comments") were summarized in paragraph form to outline the general nature of the comments and the frequency of particular comments. Once again, useful descriptions of the major variables were recorded independently.

Validation procedures. To increase the validity and reliability of the data analysis, the methods used to analyze the two sets of verbal data were reviewed in detail by a doctoral student in educational administration. During this review, many examples were drawn from the data so that their usage could be examined critically.

Interview Data

A careful study of the ten transcriptions of the recorded interviews revealed that content analysis and frequency counts would not be suitable. To reduce the qualitative descriptions of the major variables would contradict the purpose of conducting the interviews. Some of the responses describing the following variables were edited and reported to demonstrate the nature and quality of the responses:

1. sources of greatest job satisfaction (Question 1 (a));
2. sources of greatest dissatisfaction (Question 1 (b));
3. meaning of "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" (Question 1 (c));
4. definition of leadership (Question 2); and
5. factors contributing most to level of influence (Question 5).

From analysis of each of these five sets of data, five lists of "observations" were written as a way of summarizing the researcher's interpretation of the data.

In Questions 3 and 4, the principals had been asked to compare variables quantitatively, to describe the degree to which one variable was an indicator of another. Because they found these questions difficult to answer, and in some cases could not answer, there were few quantitative results to report. The analysis of these data was reported in such a way as to demonstrate the difficulty that principals had in responding, as well as providing the few quantitative results.

Validity and Reliability

The main purpose of the free response questions on the questionnaire and the interviews was to collect additional information related to the major variables. These techniques also increased the validity and reliability of the research methodology. Having a second researcher review the methods for analyzing the verbal responses was seen as a way of increasing the validity and reliability of the data analysis. The discussion below is more specific in describing the validity and reliability of the research instruments and data.

Validity of the Questionnaire Development and Data

In Locke's (1976:1337) terms, content validity involves "the logical relationships between the conceptual definition of the concept or phenomenon being measured and the methods used to measure it (e.g., the particular content of the questions asked of the subject)." Three factors contributed to the content validity of the questionnaire: (1) as already noted, at least six experts in theory and research and/or educational leadership were consulted in the development of the questionnaire; (2) a pilot study was carried out among six graduate students in educational administration who were high school principals; and (3) the researcher who developed the questionnaire had five years of experience as a high school principal.

According to Mouly (1978:190), "the validity of questionnaire data depends in a crucial way on the ability and willingness of the respondents to provide the information requested." Five factors contributed to the validity dependent upon the ability and willingness of the principals to answer the questions:

1. the steps taken in developing the questionnaire removed some ambiguity from the directions and questions;

2. the high school principals of Alberta were quite highly educated and, therefore, capable of understanding the questions and expressing themselves;

3. the questionnaire was specifically related to the personal thoughts, opinions, and feelings of the principals—therefore, it should have been more interesting and they did not have to seek information from external sources;

4. complete anonymity was guaranteed and care was taken to emphasize this to the principals; and

5. through statements made in the covering letter, through the quality of printed materials mailed to principals, and through the promise to provide a written report to all respondents, an effort was made to make the study appear worthy of their participation.

Reliability of the Instruments in the Questionnaire

In explaining the term "reliability" Travers (1969:156) stated that "a useful [reliable] measuring instrument is one in which the variability produced by errors in measurement is small compared with the variability of the objects measured." Because the error portion of scores cannot be separated from the "true" scores, indirect methods must be used to measure reliability. The "split-half" technique is commonly used to measure indirectly the reliability of measuring instruments. Travers (1969:158) explained this split-half technique:

> When only one form of a test exists . . . one can regard the items of the test as consisting of two separate tests, each of half length. One can, for example, consider all the even-numbered items as one form of the test and all the odd-numbered items as another. If the test is highly reliable, then the scores derived from one half of the items should be highly correlated with the scores derived from the other half.

This odd-even split was used to test the reliability of the instruments in the questionnaire.

The following Gutman Split-Half coefficients were determined on an odd-even split of the items in the four instruments:

1.	Job satisfaction items	0.95
2.	School effectiveness items	0.90
3.	Leader effectiveness items	0.87
4.	Level of influence items	0.76.

All except the Level of Influence instrument proved to be highly reliable.

Validity of the Interview Schedule and Data

The same factors which contributed to the content validity of the questionnaire development and data also contributed to the validity of the interview schedule and data: (1) three professors were consulted in the development of the schedule; (2) a pilot study was carried out among three of the graduate students who had taken part in the pilot study of the questionnaire; and (3) the researcher who developed the interview schedule had five years of experience as a high school principal. Also, similar factors contributed to the validity dependent upon the ability and willingness of the principals to speak openly in the interview:

1. the steps taken in developing the interview schedule and during the interview removed some ambiguity from the questions;

2. the interview respondents were quite highly educated and experienced and were therefore capable of understanding the questions and expressing themselves;

3. the interview was specifically related to the personal thoughts, opinions, and feelings of the principals and it took place in their office: therefore it should have been more meaningful and interesting, and the principals did not have to seek information from external sources;

4. complete anonymity was guaranteed and care was taken to make principals feel secure about this; and

5. the researcher tried to establish a trusting, relaxed relationship with each principal before the actual interview was recorded; the researcher's experience as a principal was very helpful in establishing a good rapport.

Summary

A questionnaire was developed to collect data from the population of senior high school principals in Alberta. The first two sections of the questionnaire sought to describe organizational characteristics of the schools and personal characteristics of the principals. The Job Satisfaction instrument, based on a section of Rice's (1978) questionnaire, contained thirty-five facets of job satisfaction and one item to measure overall job satisfaction. The other three instruments, developed from the literature, contained fifteen criteria of school effectiveness, ten criteria of leader effectiveness and seven bases of influence: these instruments also contained single items to measure overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence. Another type of question in the School Effectiveness instrument required an open written response in which principals listed what they believed to be the most important indicators of high school effectiveness. Six-point rating scales with no neutral point were used in the instruments to measure job satisfaction, school effectiveness and leader effectiveness; a four-point scale was used in the Level of Influence instrument. A single question at the end of the questionnaire invited respondents to express any concerns or opinions.

Ten principals—a stratified ramdom sample of volunteers—participated in a semi-structured interview that provided data to clarify or enrich the questionnaire data. The five major questions in the interview schedule, derived from the statistical and content analysis of the questionnaire data, sought to gain further insight into the nature of each major variable.

After the pilot test and after permission was obtained from the appropriate authorities, the questionnaire was distributed to the population (155) of senior high school principals. A "follow-up" letter helped to bring the final response rate to 88 percent, with 86 percent being used in the data analysis.

Descriptive statistical methods—correlational analysis, linear regression analysis and comparison of means—were used to examine the relationships between overall job satisfaction and the three role perceptions, to identify the best predictors of each major variable, and to identify relationships between overall job satisfaction and the organizational and personal characteristics. Content analysis was used to analyze the lists of most important indicators of school effectiveness and the "additional comments."

In analyzing and reporting the interview data, care was taken not to reduce the descriptive quality of the responses. Approximately half of the responses to each question were edited and reported as examples. Lists of "observations" were used to summarize the researcher's interpretation of each complete set of responses.

Using free response questions, collecting additional information in interviews, and having a second researcher review the methods for analyzing the qualitative data were viewed as ways to generally increase the validity and reliability of the research methodology and data analysis. At least eight factors (discussed in this chapter) contributed to the content validity of the questionnaire. To test the reliability of the instruments in the questionnaire, Gutman Split-Half coefficients were determined on an odd-even split of the items in the four instruments: all except the Level of Influence instrument proved to be highly reliable.

The same factors which contributed to the content validity of the questionnaire development and data also contributed to the validity of the interview schedule and data.

CHAPTER 4

Profile of the Respondents

This chapter presents a profile of the 133 principals who responded to the questionnaire and the ten principals who were interviewed. The profile of the respondents is a report of two major sets of characteristics—(1) organizational characteristics of the schools, and (2) personal and professional characteristics of the principals. The profile of the interviewees is a brief, general description of their professional characteristics and the characteristics of their schools.

Organizational Characteristics of the Schools

The frequency and percentage frequency distribution of three organizational characteristics are reported in Table 4.1.

School Setting

Almost one-half of the high schools were city schools. Approximately one-third were town schools and approximately one-quarter were rural schools. One respondent checked the term "Other" and described his/her school as "suburban."

Type of School System

The respondents were quite evenly distributed among the four types of school systems in Alberta. Approximately one-third of the respondents were principals in public school districts, slightly fewer

Table 4.1

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distributions of Organizational Characteristics of Schools

Characteristics	f	%
School Setting (N = 132)		
City	57	43.2%
Town	43	32.6
Rural	31	23.5
Other	1	0.8
Type of School Setting (N = 131)		
Public District	44	33.6%
County	38	29.0
Division	30	22.9
Separate District	19	14.5
Grades in School (N = 132)		
7 - 12	44	32.6%
8 - 12	9	5.8
9 - 12	18	13.6
10 - 12	59	43.9
Other	2	3.0

in county school systems, almost one-quarter in school divisions, and the smallest proportion were principals in separate school districts.

Grades in Schools

Forty-four percent of the respondents were principals of senior high schools containing Grade 10 to Grade 12 and 33 percent were principals of junior-senior high schools containing Grade 7 to Grade 12. Twenty percent were principals of schools containing Grade 8 to Grade 12 or Grade 9 to Grade 12. Two respondents were from schools containing Grade 8 to Grade 11.

Number of Students and Professional Personnel

The frequency and percentage frequency distributions of the number of students and professional personnel are reported in Table 4.2.

Number of students. Fifty-eight percent of the respondents reported school enrollments of less than 500. Twenty-one percent reported enrollments of 500 to 999 and just under 20 percent reported enrollments of 1,000 to 1,999. Two respondents reported enrollments of 2,000 or more.

Number of full-time equivalent teachers. Thirty-eight percent of the respondents reported staff sizes of less than twenty-five and a similar percentage reported staff sizes of twenty-five to forty-nine; thus, almost 80 percent of the respondents worked with a staff of less than fifty full-time equivalent teachers.

Table 4.2

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Number of Students and Professional Personnel in Schools

Number of Students and Professional Personnel	f	%
Number of Students (N = 127)		
Less than 500	73	57.5%
500 - 999	27	21.3
1,000 - 1,499	13	10.2
1,500 - 1,999	12	9.4
2,000 or more	2	1.6
Number of Full-time Equivalent Teachers (N = 131)		
Less than 25	50	38.2%
25 - 49	51	38.9
50 - 74	16	12.2
75 - 99	11	8.4
100 or more	3	2.3
Number of Vice-Principals (N = 133)		
Zero	6	4.5%
1	62	46.6
2	46	34.6
3	16	12.0
4	3	2.3
Number of Department Heads (N = 127)		
Zero	64	50.4%
1 - 4	15	11.8
5 - 9	38	29.9
10 or more	10	7.9

Number of vice-principals. Six respondents reported that there were no vice-principals in their school. Forty-seven percent of the respondents reported one vice-principal, 35 percent reported two and 14 percent reported three or four.

Number of department heads. Fifty percent of the respondents reported that their school had no department heads. Twelve percent reported one to four department heads, 30 percent reported five to nine, and 8 percent reported ten or more.

Pupil-Teacher Ratios

The pupil-teacher ratios of 126 high schools were calculated: the frequency and percentage frequency distributions of the pupil-teacher ratios are reported in Table 4.3. The ratios ranged from 4.1:1 to 23.3:1 with a mean of 14.4:1. Thirty percent of the schools had a ratio less than 10.0:1 and 13 percent had a ratio of 20:1 or more.

Table 4.3

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution
of Pupil-Teacher Ratios (N = 126)

Pupil-Teacher Ratios	f	%
Less than 10.1:1	37	29.4%
10.0:1 - 14.9:1	23	18.3
15.0:1 - 19.9:1	49	38.9
20.0:1 or more	17	13.2

Personal and Professional Characteristics of the Respondents

The distributions of gender, age, years of professional experience, and formal training in educational administration of the respondents are reported below.

Sex of Respondents

Six (4.5 percent) of the 133 respondents were female.

Age

The frequency and percentage distribution of the age of the respondents are reported in Table 4.4. Over 70 percent of the principals were thirty to forty-nine years old and 28 percent were fifty or older. No principals were younger than thirty and only four were sixty or older.

Table 4.4

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Age of Principals (N = 133)

Age	f	%
30 - 39	38	28.6%
40 - 49	58	43.6
50 - 59	33	24.8
60 or older	4	3.0

Years of Experience in Principalship

The frequency and percentage frequency distributions of years in present position, years in prior principalship, and total years in principalships are reported in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distributions of Years of Experience in Principalships

Years of Experience	f	%
In Present Position (N = 132)		
1	11	8.3%
2	16	12.1
3	20	15.2
4	14	10.6
5 - 9	23	17.4
10 or more	48	36.3
In Prior Principalship (N = 130)		
0	49	37.7%
1 - 4	33	25.4
5 - 9	32	24.6
10 or more	16	12.3
Total Years in Principalship (N = 132)		
1	5	3.8%
2	7	5.3
3	10	7.6
4	4	3.0
5 - 9	50	37.9
10 or more	56	42.4

Years of experience in present position. Forty-six percent of the respondents had fewer than five years of experience in their present position, with 8 percent reporting one year of experience. Thirty-six percent reported ten or more years of experience.

Years of experience in prior principalship. Thirty-eight percent of the respondents did not have a prior principalship. Fifty percent reported one to nine years of experience in their prior principalship.

Total years of experience in principalships. Only five percent of the respondents were in their first year as a principal, compared to eleven (8.3 percent) who were in the first year of their "present position" as a principal. Thirty-eight percent had five to nine years of experience in principalships and 42 percent had ten or more years of experience.

Position Prior to Becoming a Principal

The frequency and percentage frequency distribution of the positions held by the respondents prior to becoming a principal are reported in Table 4.6. Sixty-seven percent of the respondents were vice-principals and 16 percent were teachers before becoming a principal. The twelve other positions listed in the table were reported by the remaining 17 percent of the respondents.

The frequency and percentage frequency distribution of the number

Table 4.6

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Position Prior to Becoming a Principal (N = 131)

Position Prior to Becoming a Principal	f	%
Vice-Principal	89	66.9%
Teacher	21	15.8
Assistant Superintendent	6	4.6
Department Head	3	2.3
Supervisor	2	1.5
Guidance Counsellor	2	1.5
Superintendent	1	0.8
Director of Special Education	1	0.8
Special Education Psychometrician	1	0.8
Instructor-Officer, RCN	1	0.8
Administrative Intern	1	0.8
Director of Student Service (College)	1	0.8
Entrepreneur	1	0.8
Student	1	0.8

of years that the eighty-nine respondents served as vice-principals are reported in Table 4.7. Sixty-one percent of these respondents served one to four years as vice-principals before becoming principals.

Table 4.7

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Years as a Vice-Principal (N = 89)

Years as a Vice-Principal	f	%
1 - 4	44	60.7%
5 - 9	26	29.2
10 or more	9	9.9

Long-term Career Aspirations

The frequency and percentage frequency distribution of the long-term career aspirations of the respondents are reported in Table 4.8. Fifty-five percent of the respondents did not aspire to another position other than the principalship. Twenty-five percent aspired to the position of superintendent or assistant superintendent, 6 percent aspired to a position in the Department of Education, and 5 percent to university teaching.

Post-Secondary Education

The frequency and percentage frequency distribution of three characteristics of the post-secondary education of the respondents are reported in Table 4.9.

Years of post-secondary education. Fourteen percent of the respondents had one to four years of post-secondary education and

Table 4.8

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Long-term Career Aspirations (N = 128)

Career Aspiration	f	%
Principal	70	54.7%
Superintendent	21	16.4
Assistant Superintendent	12	9.4
Position in Department of Education	8	6.2
University Teaching	6	4.7
Central Office Consultant	4	3.1
Undecided	4	3.1
Guidance Counsellor	1	0.8
Higher Education Administrator	1	0.8
Entrepreneur	1	0.8

Table 4.9

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Characteristics of Post-Secondary Education

Characteristics	f	%
Years of Post-Secondary Education (N = 132)		
1 - 4	18	13.6%
5	32	24.2
6	74	56.1
7 or more	8	6.0
Graduate Courses in Educational Administration (N = 132)		
No Courses	14	10.6%
Some Courses	37	28.0
Diploma	24	18.2
M.Ed.	56	42.4
Ph.D.	1	0.8
Present Enrollment in Educational Administration Courses (N = 133)		
No	123	92.5%
Yes, Winter	9	6.8
Yes, Summer	1	0.8

6 percent had seven or more. Eighty percent had five or six years of post-secondary education.

Graduate courses in educational administration. Eleven percent of the respondents reported that they had not completed any courses in educational administration. Twenty-eight percent had completed some courses and 61 percent had completed a Diploma or M.Ed. in educational administration.

Present enrollment in educational administration courses. Ninety-three percent of the respondents reported that they were not enrolled in any educational administration courses.

Profile of the Principals in the Interview Sample

The frequency of four organizational characteristics of the ten schools of the interview sample are reported in Table 4.10: setting of school, type of school system, grades in school, and number of full-time equivalent teachers.

The smallest school was a city school with fifteen teachers on staff. The largest school was a city school with fifty-nine teachers on staff. The three largest schools were in three different cities.

The principals in the interview sample—two women and eight men—were educators with at least twenty years of professional experience. All interviewees had been principals, in their present position, for at least five years and some had been in the position for more than ten years.

Table 4.10

Frequency of Organizational Characteristics of Schools of Interview Sample (n = 10)

Characteristics	f
Setting of School	
City	8
Town	2
Grades in School	
G. 8 - G. 12	1
G. 9 - G. 12	2
G. 10 - G. 12	7
Type of School System	
Public District	4
Separate District	3
County	3
Number of Teachers (F.T.E.)	
Less than 25	3
25 - 49	4
50 or more	3

Summary

Almost one-half of the questionnaire respondents were principals of city schools and more than 40 percent were principals of senior high schools containing only Grade 10, 11 and 12. Almost 60 percent of the respondents were principals of relatively small schools containing fewer than five hundred students.

Only six of the questionnaire respondents were women and 70 percent were thirty to forty-nine years old. More than one-half of the respondents had five or more years of experience in their present position. Almost 70 percent had been vice-principals before becoming a principal. More than one-half wished to remain in a principalship and over 60 percent had a Diploma or M.Ed. in educational administration.

The ten principals in the interview sample were experienced educators and administrators in small to quite large high schools. Eight of the interviewees were principals in one of three different cities in Alberta.

CHAPTER 5

Analysis of the Questionnaire Data

This chapter presents the analysis of the questionnaire data in five major sections. In the first section, the levels of each major variable and the statistical testing of the relationships being examined between overall job satisfaction and overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness, and level of influence are reported. Relationships between overall job satisfaction and selected organizational and personal characteristics are reported in the second section. In the third section, the best predictors of each of the four major variables are presented. The content analysis of the data listing important indicators of school effectiveness is also described in this section. The description of the relationships among selected facets of job satisfaction and selected criteria or bases of school effectiveness, leader effectiveness, and level of influence follows. The final section reports the analysis of the responses in the open-ended section.

Relationships between Overall Job Satisfaction and Overall School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence

The data describing the levels of overall job satisfaction, school effectiveness, leader effectiveness, and level of influence are reported and discussed before the statistical testing of the relationships among them.

Overall Job Satisfaction

All respondents rated their overall feeling of job satisfaction on a six-point scale ranging from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied. The frequency and percentage frequency distribution of their responses are reported in Table 5.1. No respondents were highly or moderately dissatisfied and only three percent were slightly dissatisfied. Thirteen percent were slightly satisfied. Thus, 84 percent of the respondents expressed moderate or high overall satisfaction with their job; 39 percent were highly satisfied.

Table 5.1

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution
of Level of Overall Job Satisfaction

Level of Overall Job Satisfaction	Code	f	%
Slightly Dissatisfied	3	4	3.0%
Slightly Satisfied	4	17	12.8
Moderately Satisfied	5	60	45.1
Highly Satisfied	6	52	39.1

N = 133; Mean = 5.20

Overall School Effectiveness

All but one of the respondents rated the overall effectiveness of their school on a six-point scale ranging from highly ineffective to highly effective. The frequency and percentage frequency distribution of their responses are reported in Table 5.2. No respondents felt that their school was highly or moderately ineffective and less than

1 percent felt that it was slightly ineffective. Eight percent rated their school to be slightly effective. Thus, 91 percent of the respondents to this question rated their school to be moderately or highly effective overall; 27 percent rated their school to be highly effective.

Table 5.2

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Level of Overall School Effectiveness

Level of Overall School Effectiveness	Code	f	%
Slightly Ineffective	3	1	0.8%
Slightly Effective	4	11	8.3
Moderately Effective	5	85	64.4
Highly Effective	6	35	26.5

N = 132; Mean = 5.17

Overall Leader Effectiveness

All but one of the respondents rated their overall effectiveness as a leader on a six-point scale ranging from highly ineffective to highly effective. The frequency and percentage frequency distribution are reported in Table 5.3. No respondents rated their leadership to be highly, moderately, or slightly ineffective, and 13 percent rated it to be slightly effective. Thus, 87 percent of the respondents rated their leadership to be moderately or highly effective; 21 percent rated it to be highly effective.

Table 5.3

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Level of Overall Leader Effectiveness

Level of Overall Leader Effectiveness	Code	f	%
Slightly Effective	4	17	12.9%
Moderately Effective	5	87	65.9
Highly Effective	6	28	21.2

N = 132; Mean = 5.08

Overall Level of Influence

All but four of the respondents rated their overall level of influence on a four-point scale ranging from no influence to a high level of influence. The frequency and percentage frequency distribution of their responses are reported in Table 5.4. No respondents felt that they have no influence or a slight level of influence. Thus, all respondents to this question rated their level of influence as moderate or high; 37 percent rated it as high.

Table 5.4

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Overall Level of Influence

Overall Level of Influence	Code	f	%
Moderate Level of Influence	3	81	62.8%
High Level of Influence	4	48	37.2

N = 129; Mean = 3.37

Relationships among Overall Job Satisfaction and Perceptions of the Role

Testing of the strength and direction of the relationships among overall job satisfaction and perceptions of overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence is described in this section. The Pearson correlations between the overall scores of each of the four major variables are reported in Table 5.5

Table 5.5

Pearson Correlations between Overall Scores

	1	2	3	4
1. Overall Job Satisfaction				
2. Overall School Effectiveness	0.47 (132)			
3. Overall Leader Effectiveness	0.40 (132)	0.51 (131)		
4. Overall Level of Influence	0.32 (129)	0.40 (128)	0.54 (129)	

Question 1. To answer Question 1 required examination of the extent to which overall job satisfaction of high school principals is related to their perception of their school's overall effectiveness. As indicated by the magnitude and sign of the Pearson product-moment correlation (0.47), overall job satisfaction is directly and substantially related to perceived overall school effectiveness. Overall school effectiveness was the variable most highly related to overall job satisfaction.

Question 2. To answer Question 2 required examination of the extent to which overall job satisfaction of high school principals is related to their perception of their overall effectiveness as a leader. As indicated by the Pearson product-moment correlation (0.40), overall job satisfaction is directly and substantially related to perceived leader effectiveness.

Question 3. To answer Question 3 required examination of the extent to which overall job satisfaction of high school principals is related to their perception of their overall level of influence. As indicated by the Pearson product-moment correlation (0.32), overall job satisfaction is directly and substantially related to perceived level of influence. This relationship was the weakest of the relationships examined in these three questions.

Other important relationships among the major variables. Underlying the conceptual framework of this study was the position that school effectiveness and leader effectiveness of the principal are related and that leader effectiveness and the leader's level of influence are closely related. This position was supported by the Pearson correlations between each of these two sets of variables. The Pearson product-moment correlation between overall school effectiveness and overall leader effectiveness was 0.51, indicating a strong, direct relationship. The correlation between overall leader effectiveness and overall level of influence was 0.54, indicating a strong, direct relationship—this was expected to be the strongest relationship among the major variables because of the very close relationship between leadership and level of influence described in the review of the literature.

Relationships between Overall Job Satisfaction and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics

Comparison of means was used to find the extent to which overall job satisfaction was related to selected organizational characteristics of schools and personal characteristics of principals (Question 4). The following organizational characteristics of schools were selected: (1) school setting, (2) type of school system. (3) grades in school, and (4) size of school. Size of school was represented by four characteristics: the numbers of students, teachers, vice-principals and department heads in the school. The following personal characteristics of principals were selected: age of principals, years in present position, and graduate courses completed in educational administration. The relationships between overall job satisfaction and each of these selected variables are reported below.

Overall Job Satisfaction and School Setting

The means of the overall job satisfaction of high school principals in rural, town or city settings are reported in Table 5.6. The mean of the principals in city schools is substantially higher than the means of the other two groups. Thus, the principals of city high schools were substantially more satisfied with their job than the principals of rural or town high schools. The principals in rural and town high schools had the same level of overall job satisfaction.

Table 5.6

Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined
by School Setting (N = 132)

School Setting	f	Mean	S.D.
Rural	31	5.000	0.683
Town	44	5.068	0.728
City	57	5.421	0.823

Overall Job Satisfaction and Type of School System

The means of the overall job satisfaction of high school principals in separate or public districts, divisions, or county school systems are reported in Table 5.7. Overall job satisfaction of the principals was substantially higher in the separate school system than that of principals in the division or county systems, and was about the same as that of principals in the public school districts.

Table 5.7

Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined
by Type of School System (N = 131)

Type of School System	f	Mean	S.D.
Separate District	19	5.474	0.612
Public District	44	5.341	0.834
Division	30	5.033	0.765
County	38	5.000	0.735

Overall Job Satisfaction and Grades in School

The means of the overall job satisfaction of principals in schools with G.7-G.12, G.8-G.12, G.9-G.12, or G.10-G.12 are reported in Table 5.8. Overall job satisfaction of principals in schools with G.10-G.12 was substantially higher than that of principals in schools with G.7-G.12. It was somewhat higher than the overall job satisfaction of the other two groups, also, but this comparison was made probably less reliable because the frequencies were considerably smaller for the two middle groups.

Table 5.8

Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Grades in School (N = 132)

Grades in School	f	Mean	S.D.
7 - 12	45	4.978	0.753
8 - 12	10	5.200	0.919
9 - 12	18	5.056	0.802
10 - 12	59	5.424	0.724

Overall Job Satisfaction and Size of School

The means of the overall job satisfaction of principals in groups defined by four different characteristics of school size are reported in Table 5.9. The levels of overall job satisfaction in the various groups defined by the four characteristics are compared below.

Table 5.9

Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Size of School

Size of School Characteristics	f	Mean	S.D.
Number of Students (N = 127)			
Less than 500	73	5.123	0.744
500 - 999	27	5.000	0.785
1,000 - 1,499	13	5.615	0.650
1,500 or more	14	5.786	0.426
Number of Full-time Equivalent Teachers (N = 131)			
Less than 25	50	5.020	0.769
25 - 49	51	5.235	0.710
50 - 74	16	5.125	0.957
75 or more	14	5.929	0.267
Number of Vice-Principals (N = 133)			
Zero	6	5.167	0.983
1	62	5.048	0.711
2	46	5.304	0.840
3 or more	19	5.474	0.697
Number of Department Heads (N = 127)			
Zero	64	5.063	0.753
1 - 4	15	5.400	0.507
5 - 9	38	5.211	0.905
10 or more	10	5.800	0.422

Number of students. The levels (means) of overall job satisfaction of two groups of principals—those in larger schools of 1,000-1,499 students and 1,500 or more students—were substantially higher than the levels in the other two groups of principals—those in schools of 500-999 students or less than 500 students.

Number of full-time equivalent teachers. The level of overall job satisfaction of the group of principals in schools with 75 or more teachers was substantially higher than the levels for principals in the other three groups of schools having fewer teachers.

Number of vice-principals. There was no substantial difference in levels of overall job satisfaction between any of the groups defined by the number of vice-principals. The level of the group of principals in the largest schools was the highest of the four groups but a substantial difference was not detectable.

Number of department heads. The level of overall job satisfaction of the group of principals in schools with ten or more department heads was higher than the levels in the other three groups with fewer department heads; also, it was substantially higher than the group in schools with no department heads.

Summary. This comparison of levels of overall job satisfaction of principals in groups defined by the number of students, teachers, vice-principals and department heads indicated that the overall job satisfaction of the principals in the largest schools was substantially higher than that of the principals in the smallest schools.

Overall Job Satisfaction and Age of Principals

The means of the overall job satisfaction of principals in groups defined by their age are reported in Table 5.10. The overall job satisfaction of principals who were fifty years of age or older was substantially higher than that of the youngest group of principals (30-39 years), and the job satisfaction of the middle age group (40-49 years) was mid-way between that of the youngest and oldest groups.

Table 5.10

Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Age of Principals (N = 133)

Age	f	Mean	S.D.
30 - 39	38	5.000	0.735
40 - 49	58	5.208	0.833
50 or older	37	5.405	0.686

Overall Job Satisfaction and Years in Present Position

The means of the overall job satisfaction of principals in groups defined by the number of years in their present position are reported in Table 5.11. The overall job satisfaction of principals with five or more years was substantially higher than that of principals with three or fewer years in their present position.

Table 5.11

Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Years in Present Position (N = 132)

Years in Present Position	f	Mean	S.D.
1	11	4.909	0.539
2	16	5.063	0.854
3	20	4.850	0.988
4	14	5.143	0.864
5 - 9	23	5.391	0.722
10 or more	48	5.396	0.644

Overall Job Satisfaction and Graduate Courses Completed in Educational Administration

The means of the overall job satisfaction of principals in groups defined by the graduate courses that they had completed in educational administration are reported in Table 5.12. There were no substantial differences between levels of overall job satisfaction; the level was somewhat higher for the group of principals who had no courses than for the other groups.

Table 5.12

Overall Job Satisfaction of Groups Defined by Graduate Courses Completed in Educational Administration (N = 132)

Courses Completed	f	Mean	S.D.
No Courses	14	5.429	0.646
Some Courses	37	5.217	0.712
Diploma	24	5.167	0.868
M.Ed. or Ph.D.	57	5.140	0.812

Predictors of the Major Variables

The best predictors of overall job satisfaction, school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence were identified using stepwise multiple linear regression, to provide information relevant to Questions 5, 6, 7 and 8 of the thesis. In each case, those variables which predicted or contributed more than one percent of the variance are listed, although those which contributed less than five percent were not considered to be "important" by the researcher. Also, those facets of satisfaction, indicators of effectiveness, and bases of influence which did not prove to be important predictors are identified. In the discussions of the regression analyses, attention is drawn to a few facets or items which correlated quite highly with the corresponding "overall" variable but were not "important" predictors.

The content analysis of the verbal data listing "the three most important indicators of school effectiveness" is reported in the section on predictors of school effectiveness.

Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction

The six predictors of overall job satisfaction listed in Table 5.13 contributed 67 percent of its variance. The best predictors were (1) sense of accomplishment as an administrator (43 percent), (2) effect of the job on your personal life (an additional 14 percent), and (3) working relationships with teachers (an additional 5 percent).

The following facets correlated as highly with overall job satisfaction as did most of the predictors listed in Table 5.13 but they

Table 5.13

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Facet Satisfaction Items as Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction

Predictors of Overall Job Satisfaction	Percentage of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
Sense of accomplishment as an administrator	43.42%	43.42%	0.66
Effect of the job on your personal life	57.14	13.72	0.61
Your working relationships with teachers	62.26	5.12	0.49
Attitudes of parents toward the school	64.03	1.77	0.48
Attitudes of teachers toward change	65.76	1.73	0.31
Relationship with central office	67.19	1.43	0.26

did not contribute more than one percent of the variance in overall job satisfaction:

1. recognition by others (r = 0.55);
2. opportunities for advancement (r = 0.49);
3. number of hours required to work (r = 0.46);
4. social position in the community (r = 0.44);
5. student "spirit" (r = 0.44); and
6. staff morale (r = 0.44).

This situation or phenomenon occurs in stepwise multiple linear regression because certain predictor variables are very closely related so that the contribution made by one may be included in the contribution of another. For example, "recognition by others" correlated highly with "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" but it did not appear as an important predictor, because its contribution would be largely included in the latter variable.

Other information relevant to the two best predictors of overall job satisfaction is worth noting for discussion later. "Sense of accomplishment as an administrator" was one of the few facets of job satisfaction which correlated quite highly with numerous other facets. The facets with the highest correlations were

1. recognition by others (r = 0.55);
2. competence of your teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms (r = 0.49);
3. staff morale (r = 0.49);
4. attitudes of teachers toward change (r = 0.47); and
5. your social position in the community (r = 0.44).

The second best predictor, "effect of the job on your personal life," correlated highly with these facets:

1. number of hours required to work (r = 0.65);
2. recognition by others (r = 0.56);
3. sense of accomplishment as an administrator (r = 0.46);
4. fringe benefits under the contract (r = 0.46); and
5. the way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in your school system (r = 0.46).

Predictors of Overall School Effectiveness

The six predictors of overall school effectiveness listed in Table 5.14 contributed 56 percent of the variance of the criterion variable. The best predictors of overall school effectiveness were (1) the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies (31 percent), (2) the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude (an additional 11 percent), and (3) the effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in language (an additional 6 percent).

Important indicators of school effectiveness. When the respondents listed the three most important indicators of the effectiveness of a high school they could choose items from the School Effectiveness instrument or list other indicators. The frequency and percentage distribution of the important indicators chosen from the instrument are reported in Table 5.15. The two indicators chosen most frequently

Table 5.14

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of School Effectiveness Items as Predictors of Overall School Effectiveness

Predictors of Overall School Effectiveness	Percentage of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
Effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies	31.36%	31.36%	0.57
Effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude	42.03	10.67	0.56
Effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in language (official language of instruction)	47.62	5.59	0.40
Effectiveness in communicating clear, acceptable, school-wide goals	51.49	3.87	0.51
Effectiveness of teachers in evaluating students according to clearly defined standards or expectations	54.53	3.04	0.53
Effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in mathematics	55.56	1.03	0.48

Table 5.15

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Important Indicators of School Effectiveness Chosen from the School Effectiveness Instrument (N = 125)

Important Indicators	f	%
Effectiveness in preparing student to achieve successfully in post-secondary institutions	40	32.0%
Effectiveness in preparing students to be responsible citizens	37	29.6
Effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude	29	23.2
Effectiveness in preparing students for employment after they have completed their senior high school program	21	16.8
Effectiveness in providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities for students	10	8.0
Effectiveness of teachers in evaluating students according to clearly defined standards or expectations	9	7.2
Effectiveness of formal communication between teachers and parents	8	6.4
Effectiveness in communicating clear, acceptable, school-wide goals	7	5.6
Effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in language	6	4.8
Effectiveness of teachers and administrators in providing a safe, orderly environment for students	5	4.0
Effectiveness of teachers and administrators in adapting to change	4	3.2
Effectiveness in linking the curriculum to school-wide goals	1	0.8
	177	141.6%*

*Total is greater than 100 percent because each respondent chose more than one indicator.

by the respondents were student outcomes: 32 percent chose the effectiveness of their school in preparing students to achieve successfully in post-secondary institutions, and 30 percent chose its effectiveness in preparing students to be responsible citizens.

Only two of the items in the School Effectiveness instrument were not chosen by any respondents: (1) the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies and (2) the school's effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in mathematics. The first of these two items was the one which proved to be the strongest predictor of overall school effectiveness in the regression analysis.

The frequency and percentage frequency of the "other" important indicators of school effectiveness listed by the respondents are reported in Table 5.16. Although some of these indicators were very similar to items in the School Effectiveness instrument, they were not obviously chosen from the instrument; the respondents used their own terms or expressions rather than referring specifically to items in the instrument. Thirty-five percent of the respondents identified a supportive attitude or the satisfaction of parents and/or the community as an important indicator of school effectiveness; 35 percent also identified a supportive attitude or the satisfaction of the students as an indicator. Twenty-two percent identified the academic achievement of students to be an important indicator. Also, 18 percent of the respondents identified school "spirit," or teacher-student relationships as an important indicator; if one assumes that morale or satisfaction of teachers is closely related to school climate or

Table 5.16

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Other Important Indicators of School Effectiveness Identified by the Respondents (N = 125)

Other Important Indicators	f	%
Supportive attitude or satisfaction of parents and/or community	44	35.2%
Supportive attitude, satisfaction, or morale of students	44	35.2
Academic achievement of students	27	21.6
School climate, "spirit" or teacher-student relationships	22	17.6
Satisfaction or morale of teachers	15	12.0
Ability of school to retain students until completion of their program	9	7.2
Growth of students to be able to live successfully in our society	8	6.4
Involvement and support from superordinates (central office and school board)	7	5.6
Professional competence of teachers	7	5.6
Quality (firm, caring) leadership	5	4.0
	188	150.4%

"spirit," then 30 percent of the respondents considered school climate to be an important indicator of school effectiveness.

The data in Table 5.15 and Table 5.16 were collapsed to produce Table 5.17. This table reports the frequency and the percentage frequency distribution of all the important indicators of school effectiveness identified by the respondents, those chosen from the School Effectiveness instrument and those identified independently. Several items within and between the two tables were collapsed. The major item formed in this process was "satisfaction, morale, or 'spirit' of students and teachers." Several items were collapsed to form this one because most respondents who identified satisfaction or morale of students also identified satisfaction or morale of teachers and, even if this had not occurred, it was argued that satisfaction of teachers surely requires or depends upon satisfaction of students, and vice versa.

Thus, 65 percent of the respondents identified the satisfaction, morale or 'spirit' of students and teachers as an important indicator of the effectiveness of a high school. Over 50 percent identified academic achievement or achievement in post-secondary institutions and 35 percent identified the satisfaction or supportive attitude of parents or the community. Clearly, the satisfaction of students, teachers, and parents, student achievement in school and after completing high school, and the professional competence of teachers are important indicators of high school effectiveness, according to the respondents in this study.

Fourteen indicators of school effectiveness listed by the

Table 5.17

Frequency and Percentage Frequency Distribution of Important Indicators of School Effectiveness (N = 125)

Most Important Indicators	f	%
Satisfaction, morale, or "spirit" of students and teachers	81	64.8%
Academic achievement or achievement in post-secondary institutions	67	53.6
Satisfaction or supportive attitude of parents or community	44	35.2
Preparation of students to be responsible citizens	37	29.6
Caring, professional attitude of competent teachers	36	28.8
Preparation for employment	21	16.8
	286	228.8%

respondents were not used because they were ambiguous. For example, the meanings of "evaluation," "school operation," and "developing an integral life and world" were unclear.

Predictors of Overall Leader Effectiveness

The five predictors of overall leader effectiveness listed in Table 5.18 contributed 53 percent of the variance of the criterion variable. The best predictors were (1) effectiveness in making decisions (30 percent) and (2) effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers (an additional 14 percent).

Predictors of Overall Level of Influence

The five predictors of overall level of influence listed in Table 5.19 contributed 39 percent of the variance to the criterion variable. The best predictors were (1) personal qualities and characteristics (26 percent) and (2) expertise as an administrator (an additional 8 percent).

Relationships between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Selected Criteria or Bases of School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence

The first step in this analysis, to obtain information relevant to Questions 9, 10 and 11, was to determine the Pearson product-moment correlations between each of the three most important predictors of overall job satisfaction and each of the items in the School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence instruments. The

Table 5.18

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Leader Effectiveness Items as Predictors of Overall Leader Effectiveness

Predictors of Overall Leader Effectiveness	Percentage of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
Effectiveness in making decisions	29.66%	29.66%	0.54
Effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers	43.91	14.25	0.53
Effectiveness in improving the performance of teachers	48.78	4.87	0.50
Effectiveness in directing the efforts of teachers toward school goals	51.57	2.79	0.46
Effectiveness in coping with uncertainty and conflict	53.49	1.92	0.48

Table 5.19

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Bases of Influence as Predictors of Overall Level of Influence

Predictors of Overall Level of Influence	Percentage of Variance	Change in % of Variance	r
Personal qualities and characteristics	25.55%	25.55%	0.51
Experience as an administrator	33.10	7.56	0.37
Techniques used to encourage teachers and students to meet certain standards of performance	35.89	2.79	0.40
The authority of the principal's position	37.77	1.88	0.21
Willingness to recognize or acknowledge the efforts and achievements of teachers and students	39.26	1.49	0.34

next step was to determine the correlations between selected facets of job satisfaction and selected criteria of the major variables which should be related, according to the theoretical position of this study. The results of this analysis are reported below.

Relationships between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Criteria of School Effectiveness

The most important predictor of overall job satisfaction, "sense of accomplishment as an administrator," correlated highly with the following criteria of school effectiveness ($r \geq 0.40$):

1. overall school effectiveness ($r = 0.55$);
2. effectiveness of teachers and administrators in adapting to change involving new policies and/or procedures ($r = 0.52$);
3. effectiveness of teachers and administrators in evaluating students according to clearly defined standards or expectations ($r = 0.48$);
4. effectiveness in communicating clear, acceptable, school-wide goals ($r = 0.43$); and
5. effectiveness in linking the curriculum to the school-wide goals ($r = 0.42$).

Thus, sense of accomplishment of the respondents was strongly related to their perceptions of the overall effectiveness of their school and to the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in adapting to change, evaluating students according to clearly defined standards, communicating clear goals and linking the curriculum to these goals. Their sense of accomplishment as an administrator was not strongly related to the effectiveness of the school in "preparing students to achieve successfully in post-secondary institutions" (r = 0.18).

The second most important predictor of overall job satisfaction, "effect of job on your personal life," did not correlate highly with any items in the School Effectiveness instrument (or with any items in the other two instruments).

The third most important predictor of overall job satisfaction, "your working relationships with teachers," correlated highly (r = 0.41) with only one criterion of school effectiveness, "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude." It did not correlate highly with any of the other items in the instrument that also referred to "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators."

The researcher expected that a few facets of job satisfaction would be highly correlated with particular criteria of school effectiveness; for example, satisfaction with "the attitudes of your teachers toward change" correlated highly (r = 0.60) with "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in adapting to change involving new policies and/or procedures." Not all of the high correlations or strong relationships are reported; some of those which were useful in describing the relationship between job satisfaction and school effectiveness and which provided interesting insights are reported.

Satisfaction with "the teaching competence of your teachers" correlated highly with the following criteria of school effectiveness:

1. effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude (r = 0.55);

2. overall effectiveness of the school (r = 0.45);

3. effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies (r = 0.44); and

4. effectiveness of teachers in evaluating students according to clearly defined standards or expectations (r = 0.44).

Satisfaction with "the teaching competence of your teachers" did not correlate as highly with the "student outcome" items, those related to language and mathematics skills, preparation for employment, and success in post-secondary institutions.

Satisfaction with "the morale of the staff" correlated highly with (1) "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude" (r = 0.45) and (2) "overall effectiveness of the school" (r = 0.48).

Satisfaction with "the attitude of parents toward your school" correlated highly with (1) "its effectiveness in preparing students to be responsible citizens" (r = 0.48) and (2) "overall effectiveness of the school" (r = 0.41). This facet did not correlate as highly with the criteria related to a safe, orderly environment, the professional caring attitude of teachers or formal communication with parents.

Relationships between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Criteria of Leader Effectiveness

Satisfaction with "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" correlated highly with the following criteria of leader effectiveness:

1. your effectiveness in improving the morale of your teaching staff (r = 0.53);

2. your overall effectiveness as a leader (r = 0.49);

3. your effectiveness in working with teachers and in-school

administrators either to change or develop policies (r = 0.48);

4. your effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers (r = 0.47); and

5. your effectiveness in improving the performance of teachers (r = 0.45).

In other words, this facet of satisfaction correlated highly (r ≥ 0.40) with one-half of the items in the Leader Effectiveness instrument.

Satisfaction with "your working relationships with teachers" correlated highly (r = 0.41) with "your effectiveness in improving the morale of your teaching staff."

Satisfaction with "the attitudes of your teachers toward change" correlated highly (r = 0.49) with "your effectiveness in directing the efforts of teachers toward school goals" but it did not correlate as highly with these two items:

1. your effectiveness in working with teachers and in-school administrators either to change or develop policies (r = 0.35); and

2. your effectiveness in adapting policies and procedures to accommodate change initiated by the external environment (r = 0.26).

Relationship between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Bases of Influence

Satisfaction with "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" did not correlate highly with any items in the Level of Influence instrument, and neither did "your working relationships with teachers." In fact, no facet of job satisfaction correlated highly (r > 0.40) with any items in the Level of Influence instrument. As expected, the highest correlation (r = 0.36) was between satisfaction with "authority associated with the principal's position" and "the level of influence derived from the authority of your position as principal."

Additional Comments

Table 5.20 reports the frequency of the additional comments related to the major variables of this study and to the principal's role, made by 43 of the respondents in the final section of the questionnaire. Most of these comments were related to job satisfaction or principal effectiveness—the term "principal" was used instead of "leader" by most respondents. The categories in this table are discussed below.

Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Twelve respondents described their high degree of satisfaction as a principal. Three of the more descriptive responses are provided below as examples.

> Job satisfaction is derived from work that is personally fulfilling . . . recreative (as opposed to burnout). Job satisfaction really generates from honest relationships (roses and brick bats) but given in trust, and mutual support of a common goal.

> [My] greatest feeling of accomplishment comes from molding and selecting staff to arrive at a point where I have a team that works together. I also feel good about making changes where I feel there are problems and then observing improvement.

> I enjoy working with students and teachers to improve the teaching-learning situation for all students.

The other determinants of job satisfaction clearly identified from the comments were community-school involvement, recognition from associates and peers, being with students and teachers, helping individuals to grow, meeting the challenge of overcoming financial

Table 5.20

Frequency of Comments Related to Major Variables
and Principal's Role

	Frequency
Job Satisfaction	20
School Effectiveness	6
Principal Effectiveness	16
Level of Influence	4
Principal's Role	9
Other Comments	10

restrictions, and support and understanding from central office staff and school board members.

Eight respondents described their feeling of dissatisfaction with their job. Two of the more descriptive responses are provided below:

> The responsibility of a principal has increased over the past few years. The job is more stressful, less satisfying, and more frustrating. Less freedom is given to creativity and the opportunity to develop the whole child.
>
> How can one have any job satisfaction when all is fading away? Staff is being cut—hence programs are going and students are dissatisfied and bitter. Class sizes are becoming large to the point of physical discomfort. . . . The conditions are not understood . . . by the public. Teachers feel harrassed. We lack leadership from our regional offices.

The other determinants of job dissatisfaction clearly identified were critical, unappreciative superordinates, inability to provide a broad variety of programs, economic reward not commensurate with heavy work load (reported twice), and activities of the Minister of Education and the Department of Education. One respondent listed the following items that create dissatisfaction:

1. dealing with a poor teacher,
2. little control over incentives to increase performance of staff,
3. unprofessional reactions of some teachers to supervision,
4. petty grievances between staff members,
5. lack of recognition of individual accomplishments, and
6. few incentives to increase one's own performance.

School Effectiveness

Only six respondents made additional comments related to school effectiveness; these comments were very brief and provided very little useful information. Three examples are provided:

> As much as possible teachers should teach in the areas of their greatest strength.
>
> Shortage of funds reduces school effectiveness.
>
> Good parents and teachers guarantee the development of good schools.

Only one determinant of school effectiveness was mentioned by more than one of these respondents; "teachers" were identified three times.

Principal Effectiveness

Sixteen respondents commented briefly on principal effectiveness, rather than leader effectiveness in most cases. Five of these respondents identified "teachers" as a determinant of principal effectiveness—parents and students were noted once along with teachers. Other determinants identified were good working relationships, collegial or democratic decision-making, being "visible" and accessible to teachers and students, and having sound administrative training and expertise.

Level of Influence

Three of the four comments on level of influence also had been directed toward principal effectiveness and job satisfaction—for example, "My effectiveness, influence, and job satisfaction stem from my relations with all my publics." The single comment about level of influence was that principals had to know as much as possible about teachers and students to be able to influence them.

Principal's Role

Nine respondents made comments specifically about the principal's role, although they had not been asked to do so. The more descriptive comments, some of which contain implications about job satisfaction and/or principal effectiveness are reported below:

> The role of principal is being made exceedingly more difficult by decisions of others over whom the principals have no control.
>
> The primary role of the principal is to be the instructional leader and motivator. The secondary tasks related to school organization and management are also important but can be delegated. The most important thing a principal can do is to be involved in professional development on a one-on-one basis with staff. Individual growth brings great job satisfaction.
>
> The shift of teacher evaluation from the superintendent to the principal has added considerably to the responsibilities and the need for maturity on the part of the principal.
>
> Administration is a total commitment which calls for personal discipline and a high level of knowledge.
>
> Most important on a day-to-day basis is the skill involved in encouraging wholesome human relations.
>
> Level of difficulty increases with the size of the school.
>
> Responsibility is far greater than authority.
>
> A clearly defined 'role' as principal [is lacking].
>
> After twelve years it seems that more of my time is spent on organizational maintenance, rather than productive . . . leadership. The reactive type of administration or leadership normally involves having to respond to the external environment.

Other Comments

These "other comments" were not related to any of the major variables or to the role of the principal. They addressed such things as the respondent's reaction to the questionnaire, particular problems in his/her school, or changes that should be made to improve situations.

Summary

Thirty-nine percent of the respondents were highly satisfied with their job. Forty-five percent were moderately satisfied and no respondents were moderately or highly dissatisfied.

Twenty-seven percent of the respondents rated their high school as highly effective. Sixty-four percent rated their school as moderately effective and 8 percent rated it as slightly effective.

Twenty-one percent of the respondents rated their own leadership as highly effective. Sixty-six percent rated their leadership as moderately effective and 13 percent rated it as slightly effective.

Thirty-seven percent of the respondents rated their level of influence as high and all others rated it as moderate.

Correlational analysis indicated that strong, direct relationships exist between overall job satisfaction of high school principals and their perceptions of the overall effectiveness of the school and their effectiveness as a leader. Also, a direct relationship exists between overall job satisfaction and perceived overall level of influence but the correlation coefficients showed that it is weaker than the other two relationships.

Correlational analysis also indicated that the principals' perception of their overall effectiveness as a leader was strongly and directly related to their perception of the overall effectiveness of their school and their perception of their overall level of influence.

The following relationships were identified between overall job satisfaction and selected organizational and personal characteristics:

1. principals of city high schools were substantially more satisfied with their job than principals of rural or town high schools;

2. principals working in separate district and public district school systems were substantially more satisfied than principals in division or county school systems;

3. principals of schools with grades 10 through 12 were substantially more satisfied than principals of schools with grades 7 through 12;

4. principals of the largest schools were substantially more satisfied than principals of the smallest schools;

5. principals who were 50 years old or older were substantially more satisfied than those who were 30 to 39 years old; and

6. principals with five or more years in their present position were substantially more satisfied than principals with three or fewer years.

Overall job satisfaction of high school principals in Alberta was not related to the courses that they had completed in educational administration.

The best predictor of overall job satisfaction of high school principals in Alberta was "sense of accomplishment as an administrator," followed by "effect of the job on your personal life" and "your working relationships with teachers."

The best predictor of overall school effectiveness was the perceived "effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies," followed by "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude" and "the effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in language."

When asked to list the three most important indicators of school effectiveness, 65 percent of the respondents identified the satisfaction, morale or "spirit" of students and teachers as an important indicator; over 50 percent identified academic achievement or achievement in post-secondary institutions and 35 percent identified the satisfaction or supportive attitude of parents or the community.

The best predictor of overall leader effectiveness was the perceived "effectiveness in making decisions," followed by "effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers."

The best predictor of overall level of influence was "personal qualities and characteristics," followed by "expertise as an administrator."

Several facets of satisfaction correlated highly with particular criteria of school effectiveness and/or leader effectiveness but no facets correlated highly with any basis of influence. The facet "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" correlated highly with five criteria of school effectiveness and five criteria of leader effectiveness.

Thirty-two percent of the respondents wrote "additional comments" at the end of the questionnaire. Most of these comments were related to job satisfaction (dissatisfaction) or principal effectiveness. The analysis of the "additional comments" produced short lists of determinants of job satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and principal effectiveness Several of the more descriptive comments about the principal's role were reported because they contained implications about job satisfaction and/or principal effectiveness.

CHAPTER 6

Analysis of the Interview Data

This chapter presents the analysis of the interview data in four major sections. First, the greatest sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the interview respondents are reported; also, their understanding of the facet "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" is included in this section. A summary of the meanings of leadership described by the respondents follows. Next, the efforts of the respondents to compare some of the major variables quantitatively, and to describe the degree to which one variable is an indicator of another, are outlined. A report of the factors contributing most to their level of influence precedes some "impressions" and a summary.

Greatest Sources of Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

In the three parts of Question 1 of the Interview Schedule, the principals were asked what gave them the most satisfaction and dissatisfaction as high school principals, and what "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" meant to them. Some of the responses to these three questions are provided below, as examples. and each set of responses is summarized in a list of "observations" of the data.

Greatest Source of Job Satisfaction

Careful study of what gave the most satisfaction to each of the respondents indicated that simply listing sources of job satisfaction would not "do justice" to the descriptive quality of some of the data. Also, the observations of the nature of the data would be more meaningful if some of the actual responses, in edited form, were reported. The edited responses below include only those portions directly related to the question asked; any phrases or sentences which detracted from the description of sources of satisfaction have been omitted. These examples were chosen because they represent how the principals described their greatest source of job satisfaction.

1. The fact that you are contributing to the welfare of students and helping them to be worthwhile people in the world of work and in society [gives me great satisfaction]. . . . One of my personal "highs" that I get from the job is when I meet students who are successful after a few years, . . . to talk with them, . . . and feel maybe I've contributed to where they are.

2. I enjoy working with the age group of high school students and dealing with young people. I enjoy the professional relationships with high school teachers.

3. The satisfaction that I get when I come into a school is trying to leave that school just a little better than it was when I came. . . . I utilize my abilities, my skills to effect change, to influence and make a difference. . . . I think it is important that I develop a close relationship with teachers . . . where there is harmony and . . . high staff morale. . . . I think that one of my jobs is to get the staff to work together, to develop that "esprit de corps," and once they are able to do that . . . the rest follows, so that certainly gives me a lot of satisfaction.

4. I would have to say working with students and staff, especially students . . . who really do show a lot of growth. I compare them with junior high school and I find that working with high school kids is . . . very satisfactory. . . . they have a lot of good ideas, they are stimulating.

5. If my students are learning and are happy learning, if my teachers are teaching and they are happy teaching, I would say that gives me supreme happiness. . . . I think more than anything we produce good citizens. When I see that happen, [when] I see proof of good citizenship, I would say that I feel successful as a high school principal.

Observations. The greatest sources of job satisfaction of the interview respondents are summarized below in the observations of their individual responses:

1. Seven principals emphasized "students" as an important source of satisfaction; three of these principals spoke only of students. One other principal referred indirectly to students. These principals stated that they gained much satisfaction from seeing students succeed in school and after graduation, from seeing them grow to become successful citizens, and in working with them and helping them. Clearly, these principals gained satisfaction from working with students and seeing positive outcomes for their students.

2. Six principals spoke of working with teachers or seeing satisfied, happy teachers as a source of job satisfaction. One principal did not mention students but emphasized developing a close working relationship with teachers and seeing them work in harmony with a high level of morale.

3. The other sources of satisfaction reported by individual principals are functions of leaders or administrators: (1) instituting policies or regulations that satisfy students and teachers, (2) "setting the stage from an administrative point of view," (3) making the school better, changing or making a difference, (4) developing a positive attitude of the student body, and (5) the ability to innovate, to make changes. The fourth one has already been noted in the first observation because it is student-related; this source, the third one and the fifth one were the main source of

satisfaction for individual principals.

4. Several possible common sources of job satisfaction were not mentioned by the principals; for example, prestige of the position, recognition by others, working with parents or central office administrators, and making effective decisions.

Greatest Sources of Job Dissatisfaction

The principals described what gave them the most dissatisfaction as a high school principal. These data were handled in the same way, and for the same reasons, as the data describing sources of job satisfaction. Some edited responses are reported below:

1. I am most dissatisfied when I see students who are unhappy; students who feel that they have earned something, whether it be marks, respect, or whatever, but find that teachers do not appreciate what they have done. My greatest dissatisfaction comes when students and teachers cannot get along and the teacher, as the adult, refuses to adjust.

2. Job dissatisfaction comes from seeing teachers who are unhappy because these teachers will not be as effective with students.

3. There are certain days when certain situations or elements . . . will create dissatisfaction. . . . Rather than any one given situation it's usually . . . spin-offs from many of the things that you are doing day-in and day-out, and it's really not enough to create a general dissatisfaction, but simply dissatisfaction at a moment or situation.

4. I would say perhaps a couple of things. One, where staff cannot recognize the overall school objective or philosophy and, perhaps, concentrate too much on their personal objectives. . . . I think the other thing would be the support structures. There are times when I think there isn't enough support for the role of the principal . . . and this gives me a great deal of dissatisfaction [lack of support from supervisors, the ATA and central office].

5. I would have to say the political end, where you cannot do certain things because you believe that it's political in nature; in other words, it may be offending certain trustees or certain people in the community.

Observations. The greatest sources of job dissatisfaction of the interview respondents are summarized below in the observations of their individual responses:

1. Persons or groups of persons outside the school were sources of dissatisfaction for five principals. Two principals spoke of political pressures or frustration with policies from trustees and the Department of Education, and three reported lack of support from superordinates as a source of dissatisfaction. One of these principals also noted dissatisfaction because of the difficulty in contacting parents.

2. For five principals, teachers were sources of job dissatisfaction in some way: teachers who were unhappy and, therefore, not as effective, those who created and/or mishandled conflict with students, those who did not support school goals, and those who did not work to their full potential or were unprofessional.

3. One principal spoke of the conflict between students and teachers. This principal was the only one who spoke specifically about students who were unhappy for one reason or another, as a major source of dissatisfaction. One implied that students who do less than they are capable of doing are sources of dissatisfaction.

4. The nature of one source of dissatisfaction described was unclear. It seemed to be related to the societal pressures or new expectations on students and schools, or the changing values and standards facing students.

5. Two principals reported no major sources of dissatisfaction. One of these reported only daily minor frustrations.

6. Several possible, common sources of job dissatisfaction were not mentioned by the principals; for example, too much paperwork, inadequate resources and facilities, not enough time, student discipline problems, situations resulting from declining enrollments, and too many meetings.

Sense of Accomplishment

In the preamble to the last part of the first question, the interview respondents were informed that "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" had proved statistically to be the strongest predictor of overall job satisfaction. Some examples of what this term meant to them, whether or not they had rated it highly on their questionnaire, are provided below; the responses were edited in the same way as the responses to the other two parts of this first question.

1. It's a very hard thing to put your finger on. You sense it when you talk with teachers and when you hear the reputation of the school. You sense it but you don't know why teachers are satisfied with what you are doing. It might be your manner, . . . your organization ability, . . . your forthrightness, . . . your honesty, it could be so many different things the teachers perceive in you as principal. . . . When I know that teachers are glad that I am principal or . . . they are glad to be at this school . . ., that's real satisfaction.

2. Knowing that the community was happy with the services the school provided, and that would be reflected in seeing a school that is not just a smooth operation administratively, but also a school . . . where the teachers are happy to come to work, and the kids are reasonably happy with their teachers, . . . the facilities, . . . the activities, and the courses.

3. I consider it a great accomplishment when we take a little Grade 9 [student] who is floundering and [he/she] graduates a very mature person, able to cope, at the end of Grade 12. My principal's door is open and I work very closely with students. . . . So the satisfaction that I get is . . . [in] the fact that you can see these people change.

4. I'm a steward of what I'm asked to do here. . . . It goes back to my initial comment that I tried to make it a better place than when I came. I think sense of accomplishment is the service that you give to teachers and to kids, and to me that's my entire role; it's a service role. . . . As long as I'm providing a service and I can effect change and I can make a difference . . . I have satisfaction.

5. I suppose sense of accomplishment would come from feedback. . . . When someone comes to you and says 'I sure like the job that you did,' no matter what it was.

Observations. What "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" meant to the interview respondents is summarized below in the observations of their individual responses:

1. Three principals specifically related sense of accomplishment to positive feedback, about themselves or the school, from teachers, students, or the community.

2. Two principals related their sense of accomplishment to student outcomes—the success of students in post-secondary institutions and seeing individual students grow to maturity, from Grade 9 to Grade 12.

3. One principal related sense of accomplishment very directly to establishing community acceptance of the school and its unique philosophy.

4. At least half of the principals related sense of accomplishment to "teachers." They sensed accomplishment in seeing that teachers were happy or satisfied with their jobs, or in establishing conditions and an atmosphere in which teachers and students could work effectively.

5. One principal found a sense of accomplishment in the role of a "steward," in serving students and teachers and in effecting change. This point of view was similar to that of a principal who viewed the

principal's role as that of a facilitator.

6. Another principal did not definitely describe sense of accomplishment. This person felt that it was possibly related to a variety of factors and could vary with time of the school years.

The Meaning of Leadership

In Question 2 of the Interview Schedule, the principals were asked what leadership, as an aspect of their role, meant to them; they were asked to "describe the qualities, characteristics, or behavior you would hope to demonstrate as an effective leader." Following the approach used previously, some edited responses are reported below followed by a list of observations to summarize the nature of the data.

1. I tend to encourage others to become leaders. In other words, I delegate . . . and give responsibility and then I expect feedback. . . . I let them have authority.

2. As a leader, I hope to be someone who is approachable by support staff, teaching staff, or students, and also community, someone they are happy to approach, not just because I'm friendly, but because I can listen to their problems and perhaps do something about it. If I can bring about change that is desired by . . . either the student, teacher, or parental community, that is the basis of leadership. If I can do that without using such devices as power but, rather, getting people to work with me . . . as someone that they can share their concerns with.

3. I think one of the most important things is your ability to work with personnel. You have to be someone who can direct, . . . give guidance, and communicate well; you must . . . be tactful and . . . be able to make decisions. . . . I think you are a leader only if you are a follower. . . . You have to believe that the people you are working with are capable people, and I think one of the biggest problems that we find are people who try to be leaders; they attempt to impress upon people their wisdom and their power through their position, and you can't do that now. . . . You have to be able to deal with . . . people from an equal level and, unfortunately, too many people don't. . . . I suppose it's a

matter of good communications, human relations, decision-making, [and] office management.

4. I think, because you are a building principal, you have certain leadership skills and abilities that you must have to bring about a good staff working relationship, and to bring about improvements in the school. But I think it is very much a collegial thing. . . . I try to get as much leadership out of my subordinates as I can, and I try to work with the strengths of teachers, . . . [and] vice-principals. . . . So, leadership in my mind is a shared responsibility. Yes, the leader has to provide that decision-making role; you certainly have the final say, you have the final responsibility and accountability for everything.

5. I feel that leadership is tapping . . . resources towards creating the best [according to the interests of all people within the school]. . . . I practice what I preach in terms of involvement, I will not ask people to do that . . . which I'm not prepared to do myself. . . . I think there is a process where you as a leader, today particularly, utilize not only the wisdom but the forces of the people in the field [school].

Observations

1. Six principals emphasized "working with people" as an important aspect of leadership. They spoke of "getting people to work with me," collegiality or "shared responsibility," "the ability to work with personnel," and "tapping the resources of the people" in the school.

2. The principal who spoke of collegiality stated that "I try to get as much leadership out of my subordinates as I can." Another principal voiced a similar opinion, stating that "I tend to encourage others to become leaders," through delegation of responsibility and authority.

3. One of the principals who emphasized "working with people" described the basis of leadership as being a good listener, a person

who can do something about the problems or needs of students, teachers and parents. Another from this same group described leadership as "a matter of good communications, human relations, decision-making [and] office management."

4. One principal broke leadership down into (1) effective decision-making and (2) working with various groups, sometimes as a participant and other times as the group leader or chairman.

5. Another viewed leadership as accomplishing the goals set out by the Department of Education and/or the School Board and, also, meeting the demands of the external environment.

6. Another viewed leadership as being a facilitator in
(1) "organizing structures within which people can work" and
(2) "allowing, or setting the stage for, other people to do things."

7. One principal spoke very specifically about the leader-follower relationship: a leader must inspire confidence through vision, the ability to articulate that vision, and confidence that goals can be reached.

8. No principals spoke of the use of power or influence—one spoke against it—and no one spoke of the exercise of authority; there was no reference to hierarchial relationships.

Comparison of Important Variables

The interview respondents were asked to compare several important variables quantitatively. However, there were few quantitative results to report because they found some of the comparisons difficult to make. The analysis of these data is described so as to provide the few quantitative results and to demonstrate the difficulty that principals had in responding.

Leader Effectiveness as an Indicator of School Effectiveness

In Question 3 of the Interview Schedule, principals were asked to what degree they believed that their effectiveness as a leader was an indicator of the effectiveness of their school. Nine principals expressed the belief that their effectiveness as a leader was a strong indicator of their school's effectiveness, as demonstrated in the following examples:

1. I think it is to a pretty high degree . . . I think they go hand-in-hand.
2. I think that if I'm an effective leader, there is a good chance there is going to be an effective school.
3. I personally believe that your school is about as good as your principal. . . . The principal, I think, is the key to the whole thing.
4. I would say high, yes, it's a high degree. . . . The leader makes a difference and I think it's high.
5. There are effective outcomes at the school because of the things that I have done. . . . There is . . ., I suppose, a clear correlation.

These nine principals were quite definite about the positive relationship between these two variables, but the other principal was just as definite in stating that no relationship exists: "My effectiveness is controlled by the policies of the local School Board. In other words, . . . the School Board . . . dictates what is going to happen in this particular school. . . . No, [leader effectiveness is not an indicator of this school's effectiveness]."

Job Satisfaction of Teachers, Staff Morale and Leader or School Effectiveness

In the six parts of Question 4 of the Interview Schedule, the principals were asked to think quantitatively about the possible relationships between job satisfaction of individual teachers and leader effectiveness or school effectiveness; also, between staff morale and leader effectiveness or school effectiveness.

In the first part, they were asked to what degree they believed that the job satisfaction of individual teachers is an indicator of their effectiveness as a leader. Three principals expressed the belief that it is quite a strong indicator using the phrase "a great deal," but they did not support their belief with explanations or examples. Another principal stated simply "I think it's a partial indicator," and another said that it is not an indicator. Two principals provided the following descriptions of the relationship:

> 1. I don't think it's significant, but, if the leadership wasn't there I think the staff would be affected . . .; if they didn't see you genuinely supporting their needs and the teaching and learning, I think, sure. . . . What is it about a leader? To me . . . the key point is if they [teachers] see honesty, and . . . someone who really works in the best interest of students, . . . learning, and the programs in the school . . . that gives staff satisfaction. When they see you working for the school's goals, and you make decisions in tough situations . . . for the support of teaching and learning, that is extremely satisfying to teachers.
>
> 2. A principal can't cause teacher satisfaction completely. . . . But, the leader still has a great deal to do with their satisfaction—whether they have the materials needed for the program, whether they perceive that they are important in the school, what perceptions they have about the principal's . . . thoughts about them.

The other three principals were unable to respond to this question.

In the second part, principals were asked to what degree they believed the job satisfaction of individual teachers is an indicator of the school's effectiveness. Seven principals expressed the belief that it is an indicator, that there is definitely a relationship between the two variables, but only three described the strength of the relationship. These three felt that the job satisfaction of teachers is a very strong indicator of school effectiveness. Two principals could not answer the question and one felt that the variables are not related.

If principals did not answer the first two parts of Question 4 then they were not asked if job satisfaction of teachers more strongly indicates leader effectiveness or school effectiveness. Two principals said that it more strongly indicates school effectiveness but they added that school effectiveness results from leader effectiveness. Another principal suggested that it indicates both leader effectiveness and school effectiveness.

In the last three parts of Question 4, principals were asked to think about the possible relationships between staff morale and leader effectiveness or school effectiveness. Once again, they had difficulty in seeing staff morale as either an indicator of leader effectiveness or school effectiveness; also, they did not make a clear distinction between staff morale and job satisfaction of individual teachers. Six principals felt that staff morale is a strong indicator of leader and school effectiveness but could go no further in the comparison with any degree of certainty. One principal felt that staff morale is not an indicator of leader or school effectiveness.

Summary. Five principals felt that job satisfaction of individual teachers is a fairly strong indicator of leader effectiveness and one suggested that it was a "partial" indicator. One said that it is not an indicator and the other three were uncertain.

Seven principals felt that job satisfaction of teachers is an indicator of school effectiveness and three of these felt that it is a strong indicator. One said that it is not an indicator and the others were uncertain.

In support of the evidence above, six principals felt that staff morale is a strong indicator of both leader effectiveness and school effectiveness.

Important Bases of Influence

In the last question, the principals were asked what contributed most to their level of influence. Some edited responses are reported below followed by a list of observations to summarize the nature of the data.

1. Perhaps what contributes most to my level of influence is the position and how well I fill that position as principal. If teachers perceive that I am filling the position well, then my influence would be that much greater with them. . . . But just the name 'principal' gives some influence, no matter how good or poor you are.

2. [Trying to show people understanding] is the key to any type of leadership in an area that has a lot to do with people. If you can treat them in a humane, fair, and just way, you will get the same in return. . . . Therefore, they are prepared to back me up, . . . listen to me, and take my guidance and direction. . . . You can't . . . pretend that you know it all and can do it all, and [you can't] use your position as influence. . . . It is a basic understanding between human beings.

3. The ability to get along with people. It doesn't matter how much brain you have, if you cannot get along with the staff

> that you have then you might as well shut it down, because they will not cooperate with you.

Observations

1. The principals answered this question with a fair degree of certainty; most responses were relatively brief and to the point.

2. Four principals identified being able to maintain a close working relationship with people, winning their support and trust through showing understanding and interest in them, as their most important base of influence.

3. Three others identified an honest, open approach, "forthrightness," or "integrity" in dealing with people.

4. The principal who identified the "position" of the principal as the most important base of influence suggested that "filling the position well" would increase the level of influence derived from the position.

5. One principal stated quite simply that "a good mesh of theory and experience" contributed most to level of influence. This was interpreted to mean a combination of professional training and experience.

6. Finally, one principal explained that the most important base of influence was making certain that definitions of the roles of the principal, teachers and students and expectations were made clear to students, teachers and parents.

Impressions

The researcher gained several impressions, during the interviews and the analysis of the interview data, that seemed worthy of reporting.

The most definite impression was that the interview respondents demonstrated a generally positive attitude toward their role as a high school principal. All but one of the principals were obviously enthusiastic about their role; they became more animated as they spoke about their work with students and teachers and about their responsibilities as a leader. No principals expressed any signs of discouragement, anxiety or hopelessness and when they described their greatest source of dissatisfaction they did not do so in a negative, complaining manner.

Another impression was that the respondents seemed to enjoy the interview—in fact, two respondents stated that they had enjoyed completing the questionnaire. Their sense of enjoyment was possibly from the fact that the interview and the questionnaire caused them to "look inside" themselves. In answering the questions, they had to identify and evaluate their own motives, beliefs, values and rewards. As one principal stated before the interview, "completing the questionnaire was a very useful exercise because it made me look at myself."

Finally, the researcher was struck by the apparent difficulty that some of the respondents had in explaining what leadership meant to them. All of the respondents were able to express, at some point, their meaning of leadership, or to describe their behavior as a leader, but some required considerable time to formulate and express their thoughts.

Summary

The ten interview respondents described what gave them the most job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, what sense of accomplishment and leadership meant to them, and what contributed most to their level of influence. Also they tried to compare, quantitatively, leadership effectiveness and school effectiveness, and the effect of these variables on job satisfaction of teachers and staff morale.

Most of the principals gained their greatest job satisfaction from "students"; from working with students and seeing positive outcomes for them. More than half gained much satisfaction from seeing a high level of satisfaction among teachers or high staff morale. Two other principals gained their greatest satisfaction from being able to make changes, to make the school better, and one other from instituting policies or regulations that satisfy students and teachers.

Persons or groups outside the school and teachers were major sources of job dissatisfaction for half of the interview respondents. Sometimes superordinates, school trustees, Department of Education officials, or their policies, caused dissatisfaction, as did teachers who were unhappy, uncooperative or unprofessional. Only one principal mentioned students as a source of dissatisfaction—students who are unhappy and unsuccessful. Two principals were not dissatisfied and, therefore, had no major sources of dissatisfaction.

At least half of the interview respondents related sense of accomplishment to "teachers," in seeing that teachers were satisfied, or in establishing conditions and an atmosphere in which teachers and students could work effectively. Principals related sense of accomplishment to student outcomes, community acceptance of the school, and in serving as a "steward."

Six principals saw leadership as working effectively with people, sharing responsibilities, drawing out the best in people, and establishing close relationships. Leadership was not the "exercise of authority" or a strict superordinate-subordinate relationship for any of the principals.

All but one of the interview respondents felt that their effectiveness as a leader is a strong indicator of their school's effectiveness. At least half felt that job satisfaction of individual teachers and staff morale are strong indicators of both leader effectiveness and school effectiveness.

Seven principals identified their way of working with people as their most important base of influence: four emphasized winning support and trust through showing understanding and interest, and three emphasized integrity or being honest and forthright. The other three identified the position of principal, a combination of professional training and experience, or establishing clear role definitions and expectations as their most important base of influence.

During the interviews and the analysis of the data, the researcher gained at least three impressions. First, the interview respondents were enthusiastic about their role as principal; second, they enjoyed the interview as a way of "looking at themselves"; and third, defining or describing leadership was somewhat difficult for some principals.

CHAPTER 7

Discussion of the Findings and Conclusions

Chapter 7 provides a discussion of the findings from the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data and presents the conclusions. The conclusions were formulated through assessment and interpretation of the data, with special attention being paid to the relevant theoretical positions and research findings reviewed in Chapter 2.

The discussion follows the order used in reporting the statistical analysis of the questionnaire data (Chapter 5), which was determined by the sequence of research questions of the study. The qualitative findings are discussed as they relate to the pertinent quantitative findings—the purpose of collecting the qualitative data was to provide insights into the nature of the quantitative data.

Discussion and Conclusions

Level of Overall Job Satisfaction

The generally high level of overall job satisfaction of the respondents, together with a response rate of 86 percent, led to the conclusion that the high school principals of Alberta were quite satisfied with their work at the time the data were collected, and the frequency and level of job dissatisfaction were minimal.

Implicit in the opening comments of the thesis was the expectation that low levels of job satisfaction existed among high school principals; however, the problems and restraints faced by the principals at the time did not seem to be producing the low levels of job satisfaction anticipated. Although the levels of overall job satisfaction were quite high, the levels of satisfaction with a few particular facets were somewhat lower. To analyse and discuss these levels of facet satisfaction was beyond the purpose of this study but the levels may be observed in Appendix E.

Perceptions of Overall School Effectiveness

Generally, the high school principals of Alberta perceived the overall effectiveness of their school to be quite high. Their perceptions were higher than expected at a time when high school effectiveness was being questioned publicly and educational leaders outside of schools were striving to increase it.

Perceptions of Overall Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence

Generally, the principals perceived that their overall effectiveness as a leader and their level of influence were quite high. No respondents perceived that they were ineffective and had no influence or only a slight level of influence. Leader effectiveness was expected to correspond very closely with level of influence because the two variables are so closely related conceptually. This strong relationship was supported by the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (0.54) between the two variables.

Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and Overall School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence

The relationships between overall job satisfaction and each of the major variables are defined in the following statements:

1. A direct relationship exists between the overall job satisfaction of high school principals and their perception of their school's overall effectiveness.

2. A direct relationship exists between the overall job satisfaction of high school principals and their perception of their overall effectiveness as a leader.

3. A direct relationship exists between the overall job satisfaction of high school principals and their perception of their overall level of influence.

These three conclusions were drawn because the Pearson product moment correlations used to test the strength of the relationships were substantial and positive. The strongest relationship was between overall job satisfaction and overall school effectiveness ($r = 0.47$), and the weakest was between overall job satisfaction and overall level of influence ($r = 0.32$). These relationships were measured using single overall scores for each variable. Consideration of these relationships in a broader sense occurs near the end of this chapter, after the nature of each major variable has been discussed.

Nevertheless, one important observation is now appropriate. The respondents were able to provide these "overall" scores; they were able to rate their overall job satisfaction and their perceptions of the school's overall effectiveness, their overall effectiveness as a leader, and their overall level of influence. Although four respondents did not rate their overall level of influence, no respondents demonstrated or mentioned a concern about not being able to rate these variables.

Relationships between Overall Job Satisfaction and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics

Organizational characteristics. The following relationships were obtained between overall job satisfaction and selected organizational characteristics of schools:

1. principals of city high schools were substantially more satisfied with their job than were principals of rural or town high schools;

2. principals working in separate district and public district school systems were substantially more satisfied than were principals in division or county school systems;

3. principals of schools with grades 10 through 12 were substantially more satisfied than were principals of schools with grades 7 through 12; and

4. principals of the largest schools (1,500 or more students) were substantially more satisfied than were principals of the smallest schools (fewer than 500 students).

Valid assessment of these findings with respect to the literature was impossible because research on individual differences is inconsistent and inconclusive, according to Gruneberg (1980) and Landy and Trumbo (1980). Also, valid assessment was very difficult because these organizational variables were not independent of each other; for example, all of the largest schools (defined by enrollment) were also city schools and, therefore, public district or separate district schools—thus, the size of the school may not be related to overall job satisfaction. As expected, definitive conclusions about the relationships between overall job satisfaction and organizational characteristics of schools could not be formulated.

Personal characteristics. Two substantial relationships were identified between overall job satisfaction and selected personal characteristics. First, principals who were 50 years or older were substantially more satisfied than those who were 30 to 39 years old: also, the level of overall job satisfaction increased incrementally from the youngest to the oldest group of principals, which supported further the conclusion that the overall job satisfaction of high school principals is directly related to their age. Second, principals with five or more years in their present position were substantially more satisfied than principals with three or less years, which supported the conclusion that the overall job satisfaction of high school principals is directly related to their years of experience in their position.

These two conclusions were mutually supportive and could be readily explained. Principals who are older and have more years of experience in their position may reasonably be expected to have more confidence, expertise and understanding than do young principals who have only a few years of experience in their position. Also, principals who have been in their position for five or more years probably are able to see some more tangible accomplishments; that many years may be needed to reach administrative goals.

No conclusion could be drawn about the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of high school principals and their sex. It would have been unreasonable to compare the mean level of satisfaction of six female principals to that of 127 male principals.

No substantial relationship was obtained between the overall job satisfaction of high school principals and the number of graduate courses they have completed in educational administration. No reasons were obvious to explain this absence of a relationship, or this lack of support for the assumption that completing courses in educational administration should increase the professional expertise and confidence of administrators and, therefore, their level of job satisfaction. Also, if this assumption was rejected in favor of the assumption that administrators take courses in educational administration to increase their status, financial rewards and opportunities for advancement, then the findings also did not support this assumption; status, financial rewards and opportunities for advancement are facets of job satisfaction and increased satisfaction in these facets should have resulted if the assumption was correct.

The Nature of Overall Job Satisfaction

Three sets of data were used to study and describe the nature of overall job satisfaction: (1) the best predictors identified in the regression analysis, (2) the interview data on job satisfaction, dissatisfaction and sense of accomplishment, and (3) the relevant comments made by principals at the end of the questionnaire. In formulating the conclusions below, the findings from this study were related to those from the other studies of job satisfaction reported in the literature review (Chapter 2).

The strongest predictor of overall job satisfaction, "sense of accomplishment as an administrator," is discussed first, then the other important predictors and the most important sources of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are discussed. Finally, general conclusions to describe the nature of overall job satisfaction are reported.

Sense of accomplishment. In the stepwise multiple linear regression, sense of accomplishment as an administrator contributed 43 percent of the variance of overall job satisfaction: the Pearson product moment correlation between these two variables was 0.66. Locke (1976:1320) noted that numerous researchers identified sense of accomplishment as an important determinant of job satisfaction and, in particular, Iannone (1973), Schmidt (1976) and Rice (1978) identified it as a determinant of job satisfaction of principals; however, little effort had been made to discover what sense of accomplishment meant.

It was noted in Chapter 5 that sense of accomplishment correlated highly with these facets:

1. recognition by others;
2. social position in the community;
3. competence of teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms;
4. attitudes of teachers toward change; and
5. staff morale.

Also, these facets were not identified in this study as important predictors of overall job satisfaction, which meant that they were included, through high intercorrelation, in one or more of the important predictors.

This evidence suggested at least two variables that are related to the sense of accomplishment of principals. The first two facets in the list suggested that "recognition" is a variable, because social position in the community is a form of recognition. The other three facets in the list suggested the second variable: each of these is an aspect of teachers' performance or behavior that is quite easily perceived by principals. In the types of direct contact that principals experience with teachers—many types of meetings, inservice programs, parent-teacher programs, and extra-curricular activities—principals are likely to develop very definite perceptions of staff morale, attitudes of teachers toward change, and their competence in handling professional duties external to their classrooms. In these areas of working with teachers, in settings external to the classrooms, principals may feel that they affect more easily or tangibly the attitudes and performance of teachers. Thus, "the attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers in professional activities external to their classrooms" seemed to be another variable that is related to the sense of accomplishment of principals. Support that these two variables are related to sense of accomplishment was found in the interview data on sense of accomplishment.

Three interview respondents specifically related sense of accomplishment to positive feedback, about themselves or the school, which supported "recognition" as a factor affecting sense of accomplishment. Another interview respondent related sense of accomplishment to establishing community acceptance of the school and its unique philosophy, which also was seen as a form of recognition.

At least half of the interview respondents sensed accomplishment in seeing that teachers were happy or satisfied with their jobs, or in establishing conditions and an atmosphere in which teachers and students could work effectively. Two other principals sensed accomplishment in effecting change, in serving students and teachers as a facilitator or "steward." All these principals sensed accomplishment from the attitudes of teachers and students and from seeing that teachers and students were able to perform effectively because of their efforts.

Some principals referred to the attitudes and performance of both teachers and students in explaining what sense of accomplishment meant to them but two principals related their sense of accomplishment specifically to student outcomes—the success of students in post-secondary institutions and seeing individual students grow to maturity. This directly added support to student performance being a variable that affects sense of accomplishment and indirectly added support to teacher performance as another key variable.

All of this evidence supported the conclusion that the sense of accomplishment of high school principals is strongly related to (1) recognition by others and (2) the attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers and students. Ianonne (1973), Schmidt (1976) and Rice (1978) identified both sense of accomplishment and recognition as important sources of job satisfaction of principals, but they did not consider a possible interdependence between the two variables.

Other important predictors. The second most important predictor of overall job satisfaction was "effect of job on your personal life" which correlated highly with the following facets, especially the first two:

1. number of hours required to work;
2. recognition by others;
3. sense of accomplishment as an administrator;
4. fringe benefits under the contract; and
5. the way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in your school system.

The first and the last two facets in this list describe the physical benefits and conditions of the job (excluding salary). The other two facets, recognition and sense of accomplishment, were seen as the more psychological "benefits" or rewards that are carried over to the personal lives of principals. Thus, the important predictor of overall job satisfaction, "the effect of the job on your personal life," was related to the physical benefits and conditions of the job (excluding salary) and to the recognition and sense of accomplishment that carry over to the personal life. Strong evidence did not exist in the literature to support the importance of this finding. Mixed support was found in the studies of Schmidt (1976), Rice (1978) and Bacharach and Mitchell (1983) who identified physical benefits and conditions of the job as sources of dissatisfaction, if not effectively present, or as hygiene factors under Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory.

The facet "your working relationships with teachers" was somewhat important as a predictor of overall job satisfaction. This predictor is discussed below, as an aspect of interpersonal relationships, because several of the interview respondents emphasized it in describing their greatest source of job satisfaction.

Greatest sources of job satisfaction. Most of the interview respondents gained their greatest job satisfaction from working with students and seeing positive student outcomes. More than half of them also gained much satisfaction from working with teachers or seeing a high level of staff morale. Two others gained their greatest job satisfaction from being able to make changes to make the school better. Generally these sources of greatest job satisfaction of the principals were very similar to the factors that contributed to their sense of accomplishment, yet there was one different dimension. Principal-teacher relationships and principal-student relationships were definitely expressed as sources of job satisfaction. But when the principals described what sense of accomplishment meant, they did not speak specifically about interpersonal relationships with students and teachers; they spoke about the attitudes and performance of teachers and students. This finding could mean that some principals feel very satisfied working with teachers and students without feeling a sense of accomplishment from these positive interpersonal relationships; their sense of accomplishment comes from observing that teachers and students have favorable attitudes toward the principal and/or the school and that they are performing well.

The importance of interpersonal relationships and/or relationships with teachers as sources of job satisfaction for principals partially supported Rice's (1978) findings in his study of principals in Alberta. Rice (1978) identified "relationships with teachers" as both a source of satisfaction and a source of dissatisfaction and he identified interpersonal relationships with peers, subordinates and superordinates as a greater source of satisfaction than dissatisfaction. Recently, Friesen, Holdaway and Rice (1983:53) have discussed how Rice's findings with respect to interpersonal relationships somewhat contradicted Schmidt's (1976) finding that interpersonal relationships were major sources of dissatisfaction for educational administrators. They stated that "probably the discrepancy can best be explained by realizing that for a chief executive officer, such as a school principal, the central part of the work continually involves dealing with people."

In their additional comments at the end of the questionnaire, several principals clearly demonstrated that interrelationships or working with teachers and students were important sources of job satisfaction. Recognition and making changes for school improvement were also identified in the additional comments about job satisfaction, which suggested again, implicitly, that sense of accomplishment is closely related to job satisfaction.

Greatest sources of job dissatisfaction. Persons or groups of persons outside the school, for example, superordinates and parents, were sources of greatest dissatisfaction for half of the interview respondents; persons outside the school were not sources of satisfaction. Teachers who were dissatisfied and/or not performing effectively were also sources of dissatisfaction for half of the interview respondents. One principal spoke about unhappy students who were not performing well as a source of dissatisfaction. Thus, there was some evidence that the attitudes and performance of teachers and students were sources of job dissatisfaction.

In this study it was difficult to draw any sound conclusions about the nature of job dissatisfaction and its relationship to overall job satisfaction because the high school principals in the study were quite highly satisfied. No respondents to the questionnaire were even moderately dissatisfied, overall, and two of the ten interview respondents reported no major sources of job dissatisfaction. Eight principals described their feelings of job dissatisfaction at the end of the questionnaire; generally these comments were similar to those of the interview respondents.

General conclusions. Several conclusions about the nature of overall job satisfaction were drawn from the evidence above.

The best predictor of overall job satisfaction, "sense of accomplishment," is a general or "umbrella" term which covers several facets of satisfaction. The complex nature of sense of accomplishment was demonstrated by its being strongly related, statistically, to numerous other facets of satisfaction. In spite of the complex interrelationships with other facets, the sense of accomplishment of high school principals was most strongly related to two variables: (1) recognition by others and (2) the attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers and students.

The second best predictor of overall job satisfaction, "the effect of the job on your personal life," was related to (1) the physical benefits and conditions of the job (excluding salary) and (2) the psychological rewards, such as recognition and sense of accomplishment, that carry over to the personal life of a principal.

The third best predictor of overall job satisfaction, "your working relationships with teachers," was strongly supported as an important source of job satisfaction by the interview respondents, as was a more general term, interpersonal relationships with teachers and students.

The attitudes and performance of teachers and students were also sources of job dissatisfaction—as well as being variables that strongly affected sense of accomplishment. Persons or groups of persons outside the school were important sources of job dissatisfaction but not job satisfaction.

Finally, these insights into the nature of overall job satisfaction were supportive of the theoretical position adopted in this study and generally supportive of other research findings (Chapter 2). Sense of accomplishment, recognition and interpersonal relationships have been identified by other researchers as important sources of job satisfaction. The overall job satisfaction of high school principals results from their affective reactions to particular facets of their job and certain facets contribute more than others. More insights into overall job satisfaction and theoretical considerations are discussed when they are related to the other major variables in this study.

Important Indicators of Overall School Effectiveness

Two sets of data were used to study and describe the important indicators of overall school effectiveness: (1) the best predictors identified in the regression analysis and (2) the most important indicators listed by respondents in the questionnaire.

The best predictor of overall school effectiveness, "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies," contributed 31 percent of the variance of the criterion variable. The other two important predictors were "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude" and "the effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in language." Some support that these variables are the best predictors could have been obtained from the review of the literature on organizational effectiveness. For example, the three predictors correspond to three different indicators of effectiveness described by Miskel et al. (1979); the best predictor corresponds to flexibility, the second corresponds at least implicitly to adaptability, and the third corresponds to productivity. However, the best predictor identified statistically was not supported by the analysis of the verbal data listing the most important indicators of high school effectiveness. The two sets of data presented a contradiction.

When principals listed the three most important indicators of a high school's effectiveness they could choose any items from the School Effectiveness instrument. The best predictor from the regression analysis was one of the two items not chosen by any respondents. Furthermore, none of the "other" verbal responses produced any indicators that even resembled "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies." Apparently, this item had proved to be the strongest predictor in the regression analysis for some reason other than it being the most important indicator of school effectiveness.

The reason put forward to explain this phenomenon was found in the nature of the item itself compared to each of the other items in the School Effectiveness instrument. "The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies" appeared to be the most "perceivable" or "measurable" item in the instrument; this item recalled situations that likely made a strong psychological impact. When principals experienced "unexpected overloads of work" or "emergencies" they likely retained quite definite perceptions of how effectively the situations were handled. The item might be too "strong" simply because of the term "emergencies"; it might be described as one that generated more emotion than any other item in the instrument. Thus, the measurement of principals' perceptions of their school's overall effectiveness may have been too strongly affected by this item. Although the item was the best statistical predictor of overall school effectiveness, it was not concluded that it is the most important indicator of school effectiveness.

The other two important predictors from the regression analysis were supported by the verbal data. "The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a caring and professional attitude" was chosen from the instrument by 23 percent of the respondents and seven other principals defined a "new" indicator which was very similar. "The effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory language skills" was chosen from the instrument by 5 percent of the respondents but a closely related and more general indicator, "academic achievement or achievement in post-secondary institutions" ranked third in level of importance in the final list of indicators.

The principals in this study identified the following indicators of high school effectiveness as being the most important; they are listed in order of priority:

1. satisfaction, morale, or "spirit" of students and teachers;
2. academic achievement in post-secondary institutions;
3. satisfaction or supportive attitude of parents or community;
4. preparation of students to be responsible citizens;
5. caring, professional attitude of competent teachers; and
6. preparation for employment.

Because this "final" list from the data analysis was a combination of items from the instrument and "other" items, it corresponded reasonably well to the School Effectiveness instrument. Generally, this final list focused on student outcomes although the satisfaction and morale of teachers and students was the most important indicator. This latter point was a departure from the literature on school effectiveness and, therefore, from the School Effectiveness instrument. Very few writers had listed teacher or student satisfaction and morale as indicators of school effectiveness: Lawler et al. (1980:6) saw "the human impact of the system on its individual members" as a dimension of organizational effectiveness and Miskel (1982) saw job satisfaction as an indicator of school effectiveness. Also, the leadership effectiveness of the principal, an important indicator of school effectiveness in the literature—e.g., Murphy et al. (1983) and Edmonds (1982)—which was omitted from the instrument, was not identified by the respondents in their listing of important indicators.

In an effort to understand these departures from the literature, the interview respondents were asked if they felt that the job satisfaction and morale of teachers were indicators of school effectiveness or leader effectiveness, and if their effectiveness as a leader was an indicator of their school's effectiveness. Generally, a majority of these ten principals felt that the job satisfaction of individual teachers was a fairly strong indicator of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness: six principals definitely felt that staff morale is a strong indicator of both school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. Nine principals felt quite definitely that their effectiveness as a leader was an indicator of their school's effectiveness: this finding supported the high positive correlation score (0.51) between overall school effectiveness and overall leader effectiveness.

Concluding comment. The most important conclusion from the analysis of the school effectiveness data was the priority listing of important indicators of high school effectiveness as perceived by the respondents. Perhaps of equal importance was the discovery of the discrepancy with respect to the best statistical predictor between the questionnaire data and the interview data. The existence of such a discrepancy emphasized the usefulness of having two different types of data to make comparisons. This usefulness of comparing different sets of data was also demonstrated in the mutual support for the strong relationship between school effectiveness and leader effectiveness.

Important Indicators of Overall Leader Effectiveness

Three sets of data were used to study and describe the important indicators of overall leader effectiveness: (1) the best predictors identified from the linear regression analysis, (2) the interview data on leadership, and (3) the few comments on principal effectiveness at the end of the questionnaire.

The best predictor of overall leader effectiveness, "effectiveness in making decisions," contributed 30 percent of the variance; "effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers" was the other important predictor. It was difficult to build a case from the literature to support effective decision-making as the best predictor of overall leader effectiveness, especially using the literature on leader effectiveness of principals. As in the case of the best predictor of overall school effectiveness, "effectiveness in making decisions" appeared to be the most "measurable" or most "perceivable" item in the Leader Effectiveness instrument. Principals likely had a more definite perception of how effectively they make decisions; the positive or negative consequences and feedback after they made a decision were likely quite immediate and observable. Thus, it was not concluded that effectiveness in decision-making was the most important indicator of a principal's leader effectiveness, although it was the best statistical predictor of overall leader effectiveness.

The interview data did not support effective decision-making as the best predictor of leader effectiveness but it did support it as an important indicator. One principal mentioned decision-making as an aspect of effective leadership and another principal emphasized it as one of two important functions of leadership.

The interview data supported, implicitly, the other important predictor from the regression analysis. The importance of "effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers" was implied in the emphasis in working with teachers, sharing responsibility, and being a good listener who can help or solve problems.

The "best" or "most important" indicators of leader effectiveness could not be clearly identified from the three sets of data on leadership. Rather, the following important indicators were identified, without any ranking according to level of importance:

1. working collegially with teachers (sharing leadership functions);

2. effective decision-making;
3. demonstrating an interest in and concern for people; and
4. directing others to reach goals.

Generally, this list of important indicators of leader effectiveness was supported by the literature—e.g., Stogdill (1974) and Steers (1977)—yet some important indicators were missing. The high school principals in this study did not speak about curriculum and instruction, the need to clearly define academic goals, or the need to establish performance standards for teachers. The emphasis in the literature on instructional leadership, by writers such as Leithwood (1982), Smyth (1982), and Rutherford, Hord and Huling (1983), was not congruent with the emphasis demonstrated by the interview respondents; they emphasized working with and for teachers to establish positive relationships. The Leader Effectiveness instrument was perhaps weak in the area of instructional leadership, yet this did not explain why the interview respondents did not demonstrate an awareness of the aspects of instructional leadership as defined in the literature.

Important Bases of Influence

Two sets of data were used to study and describe the important bases of influence for high school principals: (1) the best predictors of overall level of influence from the regression analysis, and (2) the interview data on level of influence.

The best predictor of overall level of influence, "personal qualities and characteristics," contributed 26 percent of the variance; "expertise as an administrator" was the other important predictor. This finding was supported implicitly by the interview data.

As their most important base of influence, four principals emphasized winning support and trust through showing understanding and interest, and three emphasized being honest and forthright; the importance of "personal qualities and characteristics" was implicit in these bases of influence. Also, "expertise as an administrator" was implicit in these bases of influence. Furthermore, one principal identified a combination of professional training and expertise as an important base of influence, which corresponded closely to expertise as an administrator. Thus, the following bases of influence were chosen as the most important for high school principals:

1. personal qualities and characteristics;
2. ways of working with people to build positive interpersonal relationships; and
3. expertise as an administrator.

Relationships between Selected Facets of Job Satisfaction and Selected Criteria or Bases of School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence

In Chapter 5, numerous relationships between selected facets of job satisfaction and selected criteria or bases of school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence were reported from the correlation analysis. Several of these were expected because items in the Job Satisfaction instrument were very similar to particular items in the other instruments. The relationships which were useful in understanding the nature of the relationships among the major variables are reported below.

Facets of job satisfaction and criteria of school effectiveness. The important facet, sense of accomplishment, was strongly related to principals' perceptions of their school's overall effectiveness, the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in adapting to change, evaluating students according to clearly defined standards, communicating clear goals, and linking the curriculum to these goals. Sense of accomplishment was not as strongly related to the outcomes for students; for example, achievement of students in post-secondary institutions. These findings could be supported by what is known about the role of principals. These criteria of school effectiveness, excluding overall school effectiveness, which were related to sense of accomplishment are linked to important functions of principals, functions which involve principals directly with teachers. Principals must work with teachers to make changes, define clear standards of evaluation, communicate clear goals and link the curriculum to the goals. In comparison, principals are not as directly involved with teachers in ensuring positive student outcomes; thus, they do not feel as directly responsible for student outcomes.

Principals' perceptions of "the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a caring and professional attitude" were strongly related to these facets of satisfaction:

1. your working relationships with teachers;
2. the teaching competence of teachers; and
3. the morale of the staff.

This provided further evidence that the principals believed in promoting positive, trusting relationships among students, teachers and administrators and that they wanted all persons in the school to feel good about being there.

Satisfaction with "the teaching competence of your teachers" was strongly related to perceptions of these effectiveness items as well as the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a caring and professional attitude:

1. overall effectiveness of the school;
2. effectiveness of teachers in evaluating students according to clearly defined standards or expectations; and
3. effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies.

Satisfaction with the teaching competence of teachers was not strongly related to the "student outcome" items, those related to language and mathematics skills, preparation for employment, and success in post-secondary institutions. No definite explanation of this phenomenon was found. but the satisfaction of principals with the teaching competence of teachers was possibly most strongly related to effectiveness items which they could perceive or "measure" more clearly than the student outcome items. Perhaps the student outcome items were too "difficult" for principals to rate accurately.

Facets of job satisfaction and criteria of leader effectiveness. Satisfaction with sense of accomplishment was strongly related to one-half of the criteria of leader effectiveness:

1. effectiveness in increasing staff morale;
2. effectiveness in working with teachers and in-school administrators either to change or develop policies;

3. overall effectiveness as a leader;

4. effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers; and

5. effectiveness in improving the performance of teachers.

In other words, the sense of accomplishment felt by principals was strongly related to the leader effectiveness items that referred to teachers, or to those areas in which the principal works with teachers and makes an effort to increase their satisfaction, morale and performance. Once again, evidence pointed to the importance of positive working relationships with teachers and high staff morale.

Facets of job satisfaction and bases of influence. No facet of job satisfaction correlated ($r \geqslant 0.40$) highly with any bases of influence. As expected, the highest correlation ($r = 0.36$) was between satisfaction with the authority of the principal's position and the level of influence derived from the authority of the position. This absence of high correlations could not be explained. It was reasonable to expect that a few could be found; for example, a high correlation between "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" and "the influence derived from your expertise as an administrator" could have been explained reasonably well. Perhaps the items in the Level of Influence instrument were not measuring perceptions that were similar to any facets of satisfaction or, perhaps, the term "influence" was not a common term in the vocabulary of principals. The use of "influence" or "power" as an important variable in this study was based partially on the position of Winter (1973) and McClelland (1975) that leaders are motivated by a need for influence with others, a need to direct others toward certain goals. The principals did not demonstrate this "power motive" in this study.

The Nature of the Relationships between Job Satisfaction and Each of the Major Variables

As reported early in this chapter, direct relationships between overall job satisfaction and principals' perceptions of overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence were identified. However, little could be said about the nature of these relationships until more information about each variable was available. The general conclusions below were based on the relevant findings discussed previously in this chapter.

The facet "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" proved to be a key to understanding the nature of the relationships between the job satisfaction of high school principals and their perceptions of their school's effectiveness and their effectiveness as a leader. This "best predictor" of overall job satisfaction was related to many other facets of job satisfaction and to numerous criteria of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. Generally, sense of accomplishment was related to those criteria of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness which measured the effectiveness of principals working directly with teachers and which measured the level of positive interpersonal relationships and staff morale. Also, it was directly related to overall school effectiveness and overall leader effectiveness. It was not related to overall level of influence or any bases of influence.

"Working relationships with teachers" was another key to understanding the relationships between job satisfaction and perceptions of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. "Positive working relationships," an important predictor of job satisfaction, was explicitly and implicitly related to school effectiveness criteria, and implicitly related to leader effectiveness criteria. The principals demonstrated in several ways that positive interpersonal relationships with teachers were very important to them.

Another factor, very similar in nature to working relationships with teachers, was "attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers." The attitudes and performance of teachers or the staff morale were very important sources of job satisfaction, and of job dissatisfaction to a lesser extent, and they were indicators of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. Principals demonstrated an obvious concern that teachers should be satisfied in their work and that morale should be high if the school was to be effective. Students were also included in this factor as it related to school effectiveness; "satisfaction, morale, or 'spirit' of students and teachers" was the most important indicator of school effectiveness.

Finally, no particularly useful insights were found to describe the nature of the relationship between the job satisfaction of principals and their level of influence. "Ways of working with people to build positive interpersonal relationships" was one of the important bases of influence which was seen as a possible link between level of influence and job satisfaction.

Summary

The conclusions were formulated through evaluation and interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative data with attention to the relevant literature. The major conclusions are summarized below.

The high school principals of Alberta were quite satisfied overall with their work, and the frequency and level of job dissatisfaction were minimal. Also, principals perceived the overall effectiveness of their school, their overall effectiveness as a leader and their overall level of influence to be quite high. Direct relationships between overall job satisfaction and each of these major variables were supported by substantial correlation coefficients.

Relationships were identified between overall job satisfaction and each of the following organizational or personal characteristics: school setting, type of school system, grades in school, size of school, age of principal and years of experience in present position. Principals of city high schools, separate or public school districts, schools with Grade 10 to Grade 12, or the largest high schools (1,500 or more students), or principals who were fifty years or older, or who had five or more years in their present position reported the highest levels of overall job satisfaction.

Several insights resulted from interpretation of the data to describe the nature of overall job satisfaction of high school principals. The data on job satisfaction showed that two variables, "recognition by others" and "the attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers and students," are related to the sense of accomplishment of principals—sense of accomplishment was the best predictor of overall job satisfaction. The important predictor, "the effect of the job on your personal life," was related to the physical benefits and conditions of the job (excluding salary) and to the recognition and sense of accomplishment that carry over to personal life. "Working relationships with teachers" was an important source of job satisfaction and the attitudes and performance of teachers and students were sources of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These insights into the nature of job satisfaction were supportive of the theoretical position adopted in this study and were generally supportive of other research findings.

The principals identified the following indicators of high school effectiveness as the most important in order of priority:

1. satisfaction, morale or "spirit" of teachers and students;
2. academic achievement in post-secondary institutions;
3. satisfaction or supportive attitude of parents or community;
4. preparation of students to be responsible citizens;
5. a caring, professional attitude of competent teachers; and
6. preparation for employment.

Two departures from the literature on school effectiveness were discussed. First, "the satisfaction and morale of teachers and students" has not been an indicator of school effectiveness in the literature. Second, principals' effectiveness as a leader has been an important indicator in the literature but principals in this study did not list it as an indicator of their school's effectiveness. The interview respondents felt that their effectiveness as a leader was a strong indicator of their school's effectiveness.

"The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies" was the best predictor of overall school effectiveness, from the regression analysis, but its importance was not supported by the literature or other findings in this study. An explanation of this discrepancy was discovered in the nature of the item itself compared to the other items in the School Effectiveness instrument.

A similar type of discrepancy was discovered in the search for important indicators of leader effectiveness. The best predictor of overall leader effectiveness, "effectiveness in making decisions," was rejected as the most important indicator of leader effectiveness. The following important indicators of leader effectiveness were identified, without any ranking according to level of importance:

1. working collegially with teachers (sharing leadership functions);
2. effective decision-making;
3. demonstrating an interest in and concern for people; and
4. directing others to reach goals.

The most important bases of influence for high school principals were:

1. personal qualities and expertise;
2. ways of working with people to win trust and support; and
3. expertise as an administrator.

Several facets of job satisfaction were related to certain criteria of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness but no facets were related to bases of influence. The facet "sense of accomplishment" was related to the criteria of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness which evaluated the effectiveness of principals and teachers working together. Generally, the relationships between facets and criteria demonstrated that positive working relationships and high staff morale were important to the principals.

Some insights into the nature of the relationships between job satisfaction and each of the major variables were based on the relevant findings. The facet "sense of accomplishment" was a key to understanding the nature of the relationships because it was related to numerous other facets of job satisfaction, it was the best predictor of overall job satisfaction, it was strongly related to perceptions of overall school effectiveness and overall leader effectiveness, and to numerous criteria of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. The facet "working relationships with teachers" was another important link between job satisfaction and perceptions of school and leader effectiveness. The factor "attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers" was an important source of job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) and an important indicator of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. No useful insights were obtained into the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and perceptions of level of influence.

CHAPTER 8

Summary and Implications

This summary briefly describes the purpose of the study, the research methodology, the profile of the respondents, the major findings, and then reports the implications of the findings.

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which the job satisfaction of high school principals in the Province of Alberta is related to selected individual characteristics and perceptions of their school's effectiveness, their effectiveness as a leader and their level of influence. The intent was to study variables that are more related to the work behavior of leaders of organizations than to the work behavior of employees or subordinates. Two reasons were discussed to justify consideration of perceived school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence as important variables related to the role of high school principals.

First, the important determinant of job satisfaction, "sense of accomplishment," was assumed to be associated with principals' perceptions of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. The considerable public and professional attention to the instructional leadership role of principals and to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of today's public schools suggested that principals' perceptions of their effectiveness as a leader and the effectiveness of their schools should affect their sense of accomplishment and, therefore, their job satisfaction. Second, the emphasis in the literature that level of influence is an important aspect of leadership suggested that principals' perceptions of their level of influence should affect their sense of accomplishment.

Three research questions which served as a guide for the study proposed direct relationships between the overall job satisfaction of high school principals and their perception of (1) their school's overall effectiveness, (2) their overall effectiveness as a leader, and (3) their overall level of influence. The other research questions addressed (1) the relationships between overall job satisfaction and selected organizational characteristics of schools and selected personal characteristics of principals, (2) the best predictors of overall leader effectiveness, (3) the bases of influence which contributed most to overall level of influence, and (4) the extent to which selected facets of job satisfaction were related to selected criteria of school effectiveness, to criteria of leader effectiveness, and to selected bases of influence.

Research Methodology

A questionnaire, containing instruments to measure the four major variables, was developed to collect data from the population of 155 senior high school principals in Alberta. The Job Satisfaction instrument was based on a section of Rice's (1978) questionnaire. The instruments to measure perceptions of school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence were developed from the literature. These instruments contained numerous facets of satisfaction, criteria of school effectiveness, criteria of leader effectiveness, or bases of influence, along with single items to measure overall job satisfaction, overall school effectiveness, overall leader effectiveness or overall level of influence. Six-point rating scales with no neutral point were used for all items except those in the Level of Influence instrument (four-point scale). Another type of question in the School Effectiveness instrument required an open response in which principals listed what they believed to be the most important indicators of high school effectiveness.

The questionnaire was pilot-tested by six graduate students in Educational Administration who had experience as a high school principal. It was then distributed to the principals. The final response rate was 88 percent, but, because one questionnaire was rejected and two were late, 86 percent were used in the data analysis.

Descriptive statistical methods—correlational analysis, linear regression analysis, and comparison of means—were used to examine the relationships among the major variables, to identify the best predictors of each major variable, and to identify relationships between overall job satisfaction and the organizational and personal characteristics. Content analysis was used to analyze the lists of the most important indicators of school effectiveness and the additional comments at the end of the questionnaire.

A stratified random sample of ten volunteers from those who had answered the questionnaire participated in a semi-structured interview. The five major questions in the interview schedule were derived from the statistical and content analysis of the questionnaire data and were designed to gain further insight into the nature of each major variable.

So as not to reduce the descriptive quality of the interview data, approximately half of the responses to each question were reported as examples, and lists of "observations" were used to summarize the researcher's interpretation of each complete set of responses.

Profile of the Respondents

The profile of the questionnaire respondents consisted of the organizational characteristics of the schools and the personal and professional characteristics of the principals.

Almost one-half of the high schools were in cities, approximately one-third were in towns, and approximately one-quarter were in rural areas. Approximately one-third of the high schools were in public school districts, slightly fewer were in county school systems, almost one-quarter were in school divisions and the smallest proportion were in separate school districts.

Forty-four percent of the schools contained only Grade 10 to Grade 12 and 33 percent contained Grade 7 to Grade 12. The other schools contained Grade 8 to Grade 12 or Grade 9 to Grade 12.

Fifty-eight percent of the schools had enrollments of less than 500 and 11 percent had enrollments of 1,500 or more. The pupil-teacher ratios ranged from 4.1:1 to 23.3:1 with a mean of 14.4:1. Thirty percent of the schools had a ratio less than 10.0:1 and 13 percent had a ratio of 20:1 or more.

Six (4.5 percent) of the respondents were female. Over 70 percent of the respondents were 30 to 49 years old and 28 percent were 50 or older. No principals were younger than 30. Forty-six percent of the respondents had fewer than five years of experience in their present position, with 8 percent reporting one year of experience. Thirty-six percent reported 10 or more years of experience in their present position. Thirty-eight percent of the respondents did not have a prior principalship. Eighty percent of the respondents had five or six years of postsecondary education. Twenty-eight percent had completed some courses and 61 percent had completed a Diploma or M.Ed. in educational administration.

The ten interview respondents, of whom two were women, were principals in high schools which varied in size from small to quite large and were located in a variety of settings and types of school systems. All had at least twenty years of professional experience and at least five years in their present position.

Major Findings

The major findings from the questionnaire and interview data are reported below.

Levels of Overall Job Satisfaction and Perceived Overall School Effectiveness, Leader Effectiveness and Level of Influence

Thirty-nine percent of the respondents were highly satisfied with their job. Forty-five percent were moderately satisfied and no respondents were either moderately or highly dissatisfied.

Twenty-seven percent of the respondents rated their high school as highly effective. Sixty-four percent rated their school as moderately effective and 8 percent rated it as slightly effective.

Twenty-one percent of the respondents rated their own leadership as highly effective. Sixty-six percent rated their leadership as moderately effective, while 13 percent rated it as slightly effective.

Thirty-seven percent of the respondents rated their level of influence as high, and all others rated it as moderate.

Relationships among the Major Variables

Correlational analysis indicated that direct relationships exist between the overall job satisfaction of senior high school principals and their perceptions of their school's overall effectiveness, their overall effectiveness as a leader, and their overall level of influence.

Also, correlational analysis indicated that the principals' perceptions of their overall effectiveness as a leader were strongly and directly related to their perceptions of the overall effectiveness of their school and their perceptions of their overall level of influence.

Relationships between Overall Job Satisfaction and Selected Organizational and Personal Characteristics

The following relationships were identified between overall job satisfaction and selected organizational and personal characteristics:

1. principals of city high schools were substantially more satisfied with their jobs than were principals of rural or town high schools;

2. principals working in separate district and public district school systems were substantially more satisfied than were principals in division or county school systems;

3. principals of schools with Grade 10 to Grade 12 were substantially more satisfied than were principals of schools with Grade 7

to Grade 12;

4. principals of the largest schools were substantially more satisfied than were principals of the smallest schools;

5. principals who were 50 years old or older were substantially more satisfied than were those who were 30 to 39 years old; and

6. principals with five or more years in their present position were substantially more satisfied than were principals with three or fewer years.

Best Predictors of the Major Variables

The best predictors of overall job satisfaction, in order of importance, were as follows:

1. sense of accomplishment as an administrator;
2. effect of the job on personal life; and
3. working relationships with teachers.

The best predictors of overall school effectiveness were as follows:

1. the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies;
2. the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a caring and professional attitude; and
3. the effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in language.

When asked to list the three most important indicators of school effectiveness, 65 percent of the respondents identified the satisfaction, morale, or "spirit" of students and teachers as an important indicator; over 50 percent identified academic achievement or achievement in post-secondary institutions, and 35 percent identified the satisfaction or supportive attitude of parents or the community.

The best predictors of overall leader effectiveness were as follows:

1. effectiveness in making decisions; and
2. effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of teachers.

The best predictors of overall level of influence were as follows:

1. personal qualities and characteristics; and
2. expertise as an administrator.

Major Findings from the Interview Data

The ten interview respondents described what gave them the most job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, what sense of accomplishment and leadership meant to them, and what contributed most to their level of influence.

Sources of greatest job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

Most of the interview respondents gained their greatest job satisfaction from "students"; from working with students and seeing positive outcomes for them. More than half gained much satisfaction from seeing a high level of satisfaction among teachers or from high staff morale. Two other principals gained their greatest satisfaction from being able to make changes to make the school better, and one other from instituting policies or regulations that satisfy students and teachers.

Teachers and persons or groups outside the school were major sources of job dissatisfaction for half of the interview respondents. Sometimes superordinates, school trustees, Department of Education officials or their policies caused dissatisfaction, as did teachers who were unhappy, uncooperative or unprofessional. Only one principal mentioned students as a source of dissatisfaction—students who are unhappy and unsuccessful. Two principals were not dissatisfied.

Sense of accomplishment as an administrator. At least half of the interview respondents related sense of accomplishment to "teachers," in seeing that teachers were satisfied, or in establishing conditions and an atmosphere in which teachers and students could work effectively. Principals related sense of accomplishment to student outcomes, community acceptance of the school, and in serving as a "steward."

Leadership. Six principals saw leadership as working effectively with people, sharing responsibilities, drawing out the best in people, and establishing close relationships. Leadership was not the "exercise of authority" or a strict superordinate-subordinate relationship for any of the principals.

All but one of the interview respondents felt that their effectiveness as a leader is a strong indicator of their school's effectiveness. At least half felt that job satisfaction of individual teachers and staff morale are strong indicators of both leader effectiveness and school effectiveness.

Most important bases of influence. Seven principals identified their way of working with people as their most important base of influence: four emphasized winning support and trust through showing understanding and interest, and three emphasized integrity or being honest and forthright. The other three identified the position of principal, a combination of professional training and experience, or establishing clear role definitions and expectations as their most important base of influence.

Important Conclusions

Variables Related to Overall Job Satisfaction

The high school principals of Alberta were quite satisfied overall with their work: the frequency and level of job dissatisfaction were minimal. Also, principals perceived the overall effectiveness of their school, their overall effectiveness as a leader and their overall level of influence to be quite high. Direct relationships between overall job satisfaction and each of these major variables were identified.

Relationships were identified between overall job satisfaction and each of the following organizational or personal characteristics: school setting, type of school system, grades in school, size of school, age of principal and years of experience in present position. Principals of city high schools, separate or public school districts, schools with only Grades 10 through 12, or the largest high schools (1,500 or more students), or principals who were 50 years or older, or who had five or more years in their present position reported the highest levels of overall job satisfaction.

The Nature of Overall Job Satisfaction

Sense of accomplishment was the best predictor of overall job satisfaction. The data showed that two variables, "recognition by others" and "the attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers and students," were related to the sense of accomplishment of principals. According to Locke (1976:1320), numerous researchers have found sense of accomplishment to be an important determinant of job satisfaction. Iannone (1973), Schmidt (1976), and Rice (1978) found recognition to be an important source of job satisfaction of principals, although they did not consider recognition to be related to the facet, sense of accomplishment, as indicated in this study.

The important predictor of overall job satisfaction, "effect of the job on your personal life," was related to the physical benefits and conditions of the job (excluding salary), and to the recognition and sense of accomplishment that carry over to personal life. "Working relationships with teachers" was an important source of job satisfaction in this study as it was in Rice's (1978) study. The attitudes and performance of teachers and students were sources of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These insights into the nature of job [illegible]tisfaction were supportive of the conceptual framework underlying this study and were generally supportive of earlier research findings.

The Nature of the Relationships between Job Satisfaction and Perceptions of the Major Variables

Some insights into the nature of the relationships between job satisfaction and perceptions of school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence were obtained from the relevant findings. The facet "sense of accomplishment" was a key to understanding the nature of the relationships because it was related to numerous other facets of job satisfaction, it was the best predictor of overall job satisfaction, it was strongly related to perceptions of overall school effectiveness and overall leader effectiveness, and to numerous criteria of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. The facet "working relationships with teachers" was another important link between job satisfaction and perceptions of school and leader effectiveness. The factor "attitudes (morale) and performance of teachers" was an important source of job satisfaction (and dissatisfaction) and an important indicator of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. No useful insights were obtained into the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and perceptions of level of influence.

Important Indicators of High School Effectiveness

The principals identified the following indicators of high school effectiveness as the most important—in order of priority:

1. satisfaction, morale or "spirit" of students and teachers;
2. academic achievement in post-secondary institutions;
3. satisfaction or supportive attitude of parents or community;
4. preparation of students to be responsible citizens;
5. a caring, professional attitude of competent teachers; and
6. preparation for employment.

Although the satisfaction or morale of students and teachers was the most important indicator of school effectiveness, student outcomes were obviously important to principals. Principals did not list their own leader effectiveness as an indicator of their school's effectiveness; this was discussed as a departure from the literature on school effectiveness.

Important Indicators of Leader Effectiveness

The following important indicators of leader effectiveness were identified, without any ranking according to level of importance:

1. working collegially with teachers (sharing leadership functions);
2. effective decision-making;
3. demonstrating an interest in and concern for people; and
4. directing others to reach goals.

Generally, these important indicators of leader effectiveness were supported by dominant leadership theories, such as that of Stogdill (1974) or that of Steers (1977). However, indicators specifically related to curriculum and instruction, as emphasized by writers such as Leithwood (1982) or Smyth (1982), were missing.

Important Bases of Influence

The most important bases of influence for high school principals were:

1. personal qualities and expertise;
2. ways of working with people to win trust and support; and
3. expertise as an administrator.

The first and third items in this list were identified from the Level of Influence instrument, and corresponded to the "referent" and "expert" types of power of French and Raven (1959). The second item was identified from the interview data and was seen to be somewhat related to both of the other bases of influence in the list.

Implications

The implications of the findings for theory and research are reported in this section, followed by some general impressions gained by the researcher.

Implications for Theory and Research

The levels of overall job satisfaction of the high school principals and their perceptions of overall school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence were higher than expected, at a time when they were facing serious financial problems, a questioning of high school effectiveness from the Department of Education and the general public, and negative attitudes of teachers caused by fear of layoffs and reductions in programs. One may ask if the principals' perceptions reflected the reality of the situation in their school. Did the principals tend to give self-enhancing answers and did they tend toward enhancing the performance of teachers and students in their school, consciously or unconsciously? If a sample of teachers in each school had been asked to complete the instruments on school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence of the principal at the same time as the principals, and if the principals had been aware of this, would the results have differed from those of this study? This question should be considered in designing a similar study to obtain principals' perceptions of their own performance or their school's effectiveness.

Finding the relationships between the job satisfaction of high school principals and their perceptions of their school's effectiveness, their effectiveness as a leader and their level of influence implied support for at least two theoretical positions in the literature. It implied support for (1) the use of perceptual methods to measure job characteristics and to evaluate how job characteristics affect job satisfaction, and (2) the cognitive approach to job satisfaction in which the affective reactions of individuals to their jobs are determined by internal thought processes. Also, finding these relationships provided evidence that the job satisfaction of individuals in leadership positions is related to job characteristics or variables that may be unique to leaders or superordinates.

The facet called "sense of accomplishment" proved to be important in this study, as it had in other studies of job satisfaction. The findings of this study generated several questions about this facet, or the term "sense of accomplishment" because it was related to many other facets of job satisfaction and to perceptions of several criteria of school effectiveness or leader effectiveness:

1. Is its meaning too broad or general?
2. Can and should the term be made more specific?
3. What would research show if the term was removed from job satisfaction instruments? and
4. Can the determinants of "sense of accomplishment" be identified by researchers?

The single variables, overall job satisfaction, overall school effectiveness, overall leader effectiveness and overall level of influence, were measurable or quantifiable. There was no reason to try to determine overall scores by combining facet scores or criteria scores as some researchers have done in the past. However, these overall scores were not independent of the facets or criteria, because certain facets, criteria or bases were stronger predictors of overall job satisfaction, school effectiveness, leader effectiveness and level of influence.

The principals valued positive working relationships with teachers and high levels of teacher satisfaction and staff morale. These factors were related to job satisfaction of the principals and their perceptions of school effectiveness and leader effectiveness. How these factors are related to school effectiveness and/or leader effectiveness should be addressed both in theory formation and research activities.

The best predictors from the regression analysis of the school effectiveness items and leader effectiveness items could not be supported as the most important indicators, in the literature or with other findings of this study. The possibility that the best predictors were the most "measurable" or "perceivable" items in the instruments was suggested as an explanation of this phenomenon. The School Effectiveness instrument and Leader Effectiveness instrument should be evaluated and modified to ensure that the items reflect the same degree of specificity and "perceivability." Also, using the same instruments with other groups—e.g., students or teachers—might provide an explanation other than the one suggested in this study, or it might show that the instruments are suitable without modification.

The effectiveness of the principal as a leader, an important indicator of school effectiveness in the literature, was omitted from the School Effectiveness instrument because the questionnaire contained another instrument on leader effectiveness. As the study progressed, this omission appeared to be a weakness in the School Effectiveness instrument—an effort was made to overcome this weakness in the interview schedule. Therefore, an item related to the effectiveness of the principal as a leader, or instructional leader, should be added to the School Effectiveness instrument to improve its validity and to have it reflect the literature more accurately.

The Leader Effectiveness instrument was perhaps weak in assessing the "instructional leadership" effectiveness of principals. The behaviors of effective instructional leaders, presently being identified by researchers, should be used to add some items that specifically evaluate aspects of leader effectiveness related to improving "curriculum and instruction." Also, researchers should try to ascertain what principals believe about their role in the area of "curriculum and instruction": the interview respondents did not mention this area in defining leadership.

Level of influence did not prove to be as important in this study as expected. Although the overall job satisfaction of principals was related to their perception of their level of influence, no facets of satisfaction were related to any bases of influence and no insights into the nature of the relationship were found. Also, the interview respondents did not demonstrate a need to be influential or a "power motive"; they did not mention influence as a source of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The relationship between influence and the leadership of principals should be studied. The emphasis in the literature on influence or power as an important aspect of leadership should be questioned with respect to principals.

General Impressions

The focus of this study was on the advancement of theoretical knowledge with respect to the work behavior and attitudes of high school principals. The drawing of implications for improved administrative practice was not appropriate. Nevertheless, certain general impressions were gained during the questionnaire and interview phases which were deemed worthy of reporting. These impressions are related to the principals' perceptions of their leadership role and to the impact that departments of educational administration may have on these perceptions in the future.

The strongest impression was that the principals were oriented to a "human relations" type of leadership role. This orientation was evident in the importance they placed on positive, collegial relationships with teachers and on high levels of student and teacher satisfaction and morale. This was strengthened by the impression that the principals were not oriented toward "goals" or "performance." Although they chose academic achievement as one of the important indicators of school effectiveness, they did not exhibit the perception or attitude that raising academic achievement levels should have high priority; they did not demonstrate a strong orientation to setting and accomplishing school goals or to improving the performance of teachers and students.

A third impression was perhaps related implicitly to the impressions described above. The principals did not express definite values or beliefs about the importance of influence in their leadership role: the terms, influence, power and authority did not appear to be terms commonly used by the principals. Especially during the interview, the respondents said very little about their level of influence or the authority of their position.

These three impressions suggested that there were many respondents who saw themselves as being in a "middle management" position, rather than in a top leadership position as head of an institution. Their perceived "leadership" role might be described as an "institutional maintenance" role in which the primary function was to maintain the status quo or to "keep the ship afloat." This perception contrasts sharply with the view that a principal is the "captain of the ship who must set and maintain a course."

These impressions were accentuated during the data analysis and discussion stages of the study by a particular position being rapidly and forcefully advanced in the literature on the leadership of principals and on school effectiveness. Researchers were enforcing the position that the school is the arena for raising levels of school effectiveness and the principal, through strong instructional leadership, is the person who can raise these levels most effectively. This position being advanced in the literature caused the researcher to question the attitudes and beliefs of the principals, reflected in the foregoing impressions, and to wonder what impact researchers and professors in educational administration could make on these attitudes and beliefs of principals. The impact that should be made, in light of the discussion above, became fairly clear. This impact is outlined below in the form of recommendations to those who educate or train principals and to those who hire and supervise principals.

Recommendation 1. Through development of theory and continued research, "school effectiveness" and "instructional leadership" should be defined explicitly so that school and central office administrators (and school board members) may obtain a practical understanding of the criteria of effective schools and the criteria of effective instructional leadership.

Recommendation 2. The principals' awareness and appreciation of the importance of their leadership role should be enhanced. If, in fact, they do view their position as a middle management position, then this perspective should be altered. Principals should be convinced that they have a responsibility of utmost importance in ensuring that their school becomes as effective as possible under their leadership. Also, they need to be made aware that effective leadership requires that they pursue and exercise considerable authority and influence in their role as principal.

Recommendation 3. Superintendents and school board members should be kept up-to-date on the theory and research on school effectiveness and instructional leadership in schools so that they may actively support principals in the improvement of each school in their system. This support could be given in several ways.

First, school boards could promote the philosophy that each school in its jurisdiction is a relatively independent institution which should be encouraged to develop and strengthen its own identity, under general, guiding policies of the school board. Second, school boards could modify the authority structure in the system to ensure that principals have sufficient authority to be instructional leaders. Finally, the roles of school administrators and central office administrators could be defined in a way that takes into account the very different responsibilities—but equally important—of each office and that makes the roles mutually supportive. If superintendents wish to raise the level of effectiveness of each school in their system, then they must organize structures and provide resources to allow each principal to carry out the responsibilities of leadership.

Concluding Comments

For decades researchers have been observing school principals at work in an effort to discover the characteristics, traits and behaviors of effective principals in effective schools. This search is continuing and perhaps the efforts of researchers now are greater than ever. Several major research programs are operating in Canada and the United States to study "instructional leadership" and/or "school effectiveness." This type of research, in which researchers study the characteristics and behaviors of principals in relation to student outcomes and perceptions of teachers and students. should produce results which will be valuable in raising levels of school effectiveness. However, researchers should also continue to study the psychological and behavioral nature of principals to obtain an accurate description of the relationships between their thoughts, feelings or emotions and their perceptions of their work. This study has demonstrated that senior high school principals have particular affective reactions to their perceptions of their school's effectiveness and their effectiveness as a leader that may be unique to persons who are leaders of organizations. The attention to improving the quality of schooling for students through increasing the effectiveness of the leadership of principals should be coupled with an understanding of the needs, motives and values of the individuals who are or who seek to be effective principals.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bacharach, Samuel B. and Stephen M. Mitchell
1983 "The sources of dissatisfaction in educational administration: A role-specific analysis." *Educational Administration Quarterly* 19(1):101-128.

Bass, Bernard M.
1981 *Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research*. New York: The Free Press.

Beehr, T. A. and J. E. Newman
1978 "Job stress, employee health, and organizational effectiveness: A facet analysis, model, and literature review." *Personnel Psychology* 31:665-699.

Benveniste, Guy
1977 *The Politics of Expertise*. San Francisco: Boyd and Fraser.

Bogdan, Robert C. and Sari Knopp Biklen
1982 *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods*. Toronto: Allyn and Bacon.

Bolles, Robert C.
1974 "Cognition and motivation: Some historical trends." In *Cognitive Views of Human Motivation*. Ed. Bernard Weiner. New York: Academic Press.

1975 *Theory of Motivation*. 2nd ed. New York: Harper and Row.

Bossert, Steven T., et al.
1982 "The instructional management role of the principal." *Educational Administration Quarterly* 18(3):34-64.

Bouchard Jr., Thomas J.
1976 "Field research methods: Interviewing, questionnaires, participant observation, systematic observation, unobtrusive measures. In *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Ed. Marvin D. Dunnette. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Brief, Arthur P., Randall S. Schuler and Mary Van Sell
1981 *Managing Job Stress*. Boston: Little, Brown.

Brown, Frank
1976 "Job satisfaction of educational administrators: A replication." *Planning and Change* 7(2):45-53.

Buck, Vernon E.
1972 *Working Under Pressure*. New York: Crane, Russak.

Burns, James MacGregor
1978 Leadership. New York: Harper and Row.

Campbell, John P. and Robert D. Pritchard
1976 "Motivation theory in industrial and organizational psychology." In Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Ed. Marvin D. Dunnette. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Carr, Robert Wyckoff
1971 "A study of the job satisfaction of high school principals." Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation.

Cartwright, Dorwin, ed.
1959 Studies in Social Power. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research.

Cohen, Michael
1982 "Effective schools: Accumulating research findings." American Education 18(1):13-16.

Crozier, Michael
1964 The Bureaucratic Phenomenon. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Downey, Lawrence W.
1961 "The skills of an effective principal." The Canadian Administrator 1(3):11-14.

Edmonds, Ronald R.
1982 "Programs of school improvement: An overview." Educational Leadership 40(3):4-11.

Etzioni, Amatai
1961 A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations. New York: Free Press of Glencoe.

Fiedler, F. E.
1967 A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.

1971 Leadership. Morristown, New Jersey: General Learning Press.

Firestone, William A. and Robert E. Herriott
1982 "Prescriptions for effective elementary schools don't fit secondary schools." Educational Leadership 40(3):51-53.

French Jr., John R. P. and Bertram Raven
1959 "The bases of social power." In Studies in Social Power. Ed. Dorwin Cartwright. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

Friesen, D., Edward A. Holdaway and Allan W. Rice
1981 "Administrator satisfaction." The Canadian Administrator 21(2):1-5.

1983 "Satisfaction of school principals with their work." Educational Administration Quarterly 19(4):35-58.

Gersten, Russell, Douglas Carnine and Susan Green
1982 "The principal as instructional leader: A second look." Educational Leadership 40(3):47-50.

Gilmer, B. von Haller and Edward L. Deci
1977 Industrial and Organizational Psychology. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Glasman, Naftaly S. and Israel Biniaminov
1981 "Input-output analyses of schools." Review of Educational Research 51(4):509-539.

Gruneberg, Michael M. ed.
1976 Job Satisfaction. London: Macmillan.

1979 Understanding Job Satisfaction. London: Macmillan.

Hackman, J. R. and G. R. Oldham
1975 "Development of the job diagnostic survey." Journal of Applied Psychology 60:159-170.

1980 Work Redesign. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

Hall, Gene E. and William L. Rutherford
1983 "Three change facilitator styles: How principals affect improvement efforts." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Quebec. Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas at Austin.

Hall, Gene E. et al.
1983 "Leadership variables associated with school improvement." Report No. 3164. Papers presented at the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Quebec.

Hamner, C. and H. Tosi
1974 "Relationship of role conflict and role ambiguity to job-involvement measures." Journal of Applied Psychology 4:497-499.

Hemphill, J. K.
1949 Situational Factors in Leadership. Columbus: Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research.

Hersh, Richard
1982 "How effective is your school?" Instructor 92(3):34-35.

Herzberg, Frederick
1966 Work and the Nature of Man. Cleveland: World Publishing.

Herzberg, Frederick, B. Mausner and B. Snvderman
1959 The Motivation to Work. New York: Wiley.

Hicks, H. G. and C. R. Gullett
1975 Organization: Theory and Research. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hickson, D. J. et al.
1971 "A strategic contingencies' theory of interorganizational power." Administrative Science Quarterly 16:216-230.

Holdaway, Edward A.
1978 "Satisfaction of teachers in Alberta with their work." Monograph. Edmonton: The Department of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta.

Hollander, E. P. and J. W. Julian
1968 "Leadership." In Handbook of Personality Theory and Research. Ed. E. F. Borgalta and W. W. Lumbert. Chicago: Rand McNally.

House, R. J. and J. R. Rizzo
1972 "Role conflict and ambiguity as critical variables in a model of organizational behavior." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 7:467-505.

Iannone, R.
1973 "What motivates principals?" Journal of Educational Research 66(6):260-262.

Jick, Todd D.
1979 "Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action." Administrative Science Quarterly 24 (December): 602-611.

Johnson, T. W. and J. E. Stinson
1975 "Role ambiguity, role conflict, and job satisfaction: The moderating effects of individual differences." Journal of Applied Psychology 60:329-333.

Johnston, Gladys Styles, Carol Camp Yeakey and Robert A. Winter
1981 "A study of the relationship between the job satisfaction of principals and the perceived level of teacher militancy." The Alberta Journal of Educational Research 32(4):352-365.

Jung, John
1978 Understanding Human Motivation. New York: Macmillan.

Kahn, R. L. and E. Boulding eds.
1964 Power and Conflict in Organizations. New York: Basic Books.

Kahn, R. L. et al.
1964 Organizational Stress. New York: Wiley.

Katz, Robert L.
1955 "Skills of an effective administrator." Harvard Educational Review (Winter).

Kelly, Joe
1980 Organizational Behavior: Its Data, First Principles, and Applications. 3rd ed. Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin.

Korman, Abraham K.
1971 Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Kyriacou, Chris and John Sutcliffe
1978 "A model of teacher stress." Educational Studies 4(1):1-6.

1979 "Teacher stress and satisfaction." Educational Research 21(2):89-96.

Landy, Frank J. and Don A. Trumbo
1980 Psychology of Work Behavior. Rev. ed. Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press.

Lawler III, Edward E.
1973 Motivation in Work Organizations. Monterey, California: Brooks/Cole.

Lawler III, Edward E., David A. Nadler and Cortlandt Carmann
1980 Organizational Assessment: Perspectives on the Measurement of Organizational Behavior and the Quality of Work Life. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Leithwood, Kenneth A.
1982 "The principals' role in improving school effectiveness: State of the art of research in Canada." Paper prepared for the International School Improvement Project, for Organization for Co-operation and Development.

Leithwood, Kenneth A. and D. J. Montgomery
1982 The Role of the Principal in Program Improvement: A Research Project. Toronto: OISE.

Locke, Edwin A.
1969 "What is job satisfaction?" Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 4(4):309-336.

1976 "The nature and causes of job satisfaction." In Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Ed. Marvin D. Dunnette. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Lofquist, L. H. and R. V. Dawis
1969 Adjustments to Work. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Maslow, A. H.
1943 "A theory of motivation." Psychological Review 50:370-396.

1968 Toward a Psychology of Being. 2nd ed. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Maynes, F. M.
1982 Report Prepared for the School Program and Evaluation Committee: Lennox-Addington Board of Education. (Draft). Peterborough: Trent Valley Centre of OISE.

McClelland, David C.
1975 Power the Inner Experience. New York: Irvington.

McCormack-Larkin, Maureen and William J. Kritek
1982 "Milwaukee's Project RISE." Educational Leadership 40(3):16-21.

Merton, Robert K., Marjorie Fiske and Patricia L. Kendall
1956 The Focused Interview. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press.

Miskel, Cecil
1982 "Organizational effectiveness of schools." The Executive Review 3(2):1-4.

Miskel, Cecil G., Robert Fevurly and John Stewart
1979 "Organizational structures and processes, perceived school effectiveness, loyalty, and job satisfaction." Educational Administration Quarterly 15(3):97-118.

Morse, N. C.
1953 Satisfaction in the White-Collar Job. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, Survey Research Center.

Mossholder, K. W., A. G. Bedeian and A. A. Armenaki
1981 "Role perceptions, satisfaction, and performance: Moderating effects of self-esteem and organizational level." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 28(2):224-234.

Mott, Paul E.
1972 The Characteristics of Effective Organizations. New York: Harper and Row.

Mouly, George J.
1978 Educational Research. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Mumford, Enid
1972 Job Satisfaction: A Study of Computer Specialists. London: Longman.

Murphy, Joseph et al.
1983 "Instructional leadership: A conceptual framework." Planning and Change (Fall):137-149.

Pfeffer, Jeffrey
1978 "The ambiguity of leadership." In Leadership: Where Else Can We Go? Eds. Morgan W. McCall Jr. and Michael M. Lombardo. Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press.

Pichler, Joseph A.
1974 "Power, influence, and authority." In Contemporary Management. Ed. Joseph W. McGuire. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Porter, L. W.
1962 "Job attitudes in management: I. Perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment as a function of job level." Journal of Applied Psychology 46:375-384.

Porter, Lyman W. and Edward E. Lawler III
1968 Managerial Attitudes and Performance. Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin.

Rice, Alan W.
1978 "Individual and work variables associated with principal job satisfaction." Edmonton: University of Alberta, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation.

Rutherford, William L., Shirley M. Hord and Leslie L. Huling
1983 "An analysis of terminology used for describing leadership." R & D Report No. 3154. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Quebec. Austin, Texas: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas.

Schaffer, R. H.
1953 "Job satisfaction as related to need satisfaction in work." Psychological Monographs 67:14 (whole no. 364).

Schmidt, G. L.
1976 "Job satisfaction among secondary school administrators." Educational Administration Quarterly 12(2):68-86.

Schuler, R.
1977 "Role perceptions, satisfaction and performance moderated by organizational level and participation in decision making." Academy of Management Journal 20:159-165.

Sims Jr., Henry P., Andrew D. Szilagyi and Robert T. Keller
1976 "The measurement of job characteristics." Academy of Management Journal 19(2):195-212.

Sirotnik, Kenneth A. and Jeannie Oakes
1981 "A contextual appraisal system for schools: Medicine or madness." Educational Leadership 39(9):164-173.

Smith, Patricia Cain, Lorne M. Kendall and Charles L. Hulin
1969 The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement: A Strategy for the Study of Attitudes. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Smyth, John W.
1982 "New direction in the study of the principalship." The Canadian Administrator XXII (November).

Squires, David A., William G. Huitt and John K. Segars
1981 "Improving classrooms and schools: What's important." Educational Leadership 39(3):174-179.

Steers, Richard M.
1977 Organizational Effectiveness: A Behavioral View. Santa Monica, California: Goodyear.

Stogdill, Ralph M.
1974 Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research. New York: The Free Press.

Stone, E. F. and L. W. Porter
1975 "Job characteristics and job attitudes: A multivariate study." Journal of Applied Psychology 60:57-64.

Szilagyi, A.
1977 "An empirical test of causal inference between role perceptions, satisfaction with work, performances and organizational level." Personnel Psychology 30:375-387.

Tannenbaum, Arnold S.
1968 Control in Organizations. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Tosi, H.
1971 "Organizational stress as a moderator of the relationship between influence and role response." Academy of Management Journal 14:7-20.

Travers, Robert M. W.
1969 An Introduction to Educational Research. 3rd ed. New York: Macmillan.

Van de Ven, Andrew H. and Diane L. Ferry
1980 Measuring and Assessing Organizations. New York: Wiley.

Veninga, Robert L. and James P. Spradley
1981 The Work/Stress Connection: How to Cope with Job Burnout. Boston: Little, Brown.

Vroom, Victor H.
1964 Work and Motivation. New York: Wiley.

1973 Leadership and Decision Making. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Weiner, Bernard
1972 Theories of Motivation. Chicago: Markham.

Weiss, David J.
1976 "Multivariate procedures." In Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Ed. Marvin D. Dunette. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Wilson, R. G.
1981 "The effect of district-wide variables on student achievement." In Curriculum Canada III. Eds. K. A. Leithwood and A. Hughes. Vancouver: Centre for the Study of Curriculum and Instruction.

Winter, David G.
1973 The Power Motive. New York: The Free Press.

Wofford, J. C.
1971 "The motivational basis of job satisfaction and job performance." Personnel Psychology 24:501-518.

Wynne, Edward A.
1981 "Looking at good schools." Phi Delta Kappan 62(5):377-381.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

PERCEPTIONS OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF SELECTED ASPECTS OF THEIR ROLE AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

Office Use Only

SCHOOL DATA

Please check (✓) the appropriate answer.

1. Which of the following best describes the setting of your school? — 6

    1. rural _____
    2. town _____
    3. city _____
    4. other (please specify) ____________________

2. In which type of school system is your school located? — 7

    1. county _____
    2. public school _____
    3. separate school _____
    4. school division _____

3. What grades are in your school? — 8

    1. 7-12 _____
    2. 8-12 _____
    3. 9-12 _____
    4. 10-12 _____
    5. other (please specify) ____________________

4. How many students are enrolled in your senior high school (i.e., the total in Grades 10, 11 and 12)? _____ — 9-12

5. How many full-time equivalent certificated teachers are employed in your school? (Include the principal and deputy/assistant/vice-principals.) _____ — 13-15

6. How many deputy/assistant/vice-principals are employed in your school? _____ — 16

7. How many formally designated department heads are employed in your school? _____ — 17-18

Office Use Only

PERSONAL DATA

8. What is your sex?

1. male _____ 2. female _____ 19

9. What was your age on 1 January 1983?

1. under 30 _____ 4. 50 - 59 _____ 20

2. 30 - 39 _____ 5. 60 or older _____

3. 40 - 49 _____

10. For how many years have you been in your present position? (Count the present year as a full year.) _____ 21-22

11. How many years of experience as a principal did you have before attaining your present position? _____ 23-24

12. What position did you hold immediately prior to becoming a principal?

1. deputy/assistant/vice-principal _____ 25

2. department head _____

3. classroom teacher _____

4. other (please specify) __________

13. For how many years did you hold the position checked in Question 12? _____ 26-27

14. To which one position do you aspire in your long-term career plans?

1. Principalship _____ 28

2. Assistant superintendent _____

3. Consultant or coordinator at the central office level _____

4. Teaching position in school _____

5. Teaching position in a college or university _____

6. Superintendent/chief executive officer _____

7. Position in Department of Education _____

8. Other (please specify) __________

Office Use Only

15. How many years of post-secondary education (as assessed for salary purposes) have you completed? ____ 29

16. Which graduate courses/programs have you completed in Educational Administration?

1. No graduate courses ____ 30
2. Some graduate courses ____
3. Diploma in Educational Administration ____
4. M.Ed. in Educational Administration ____
5. Ph.D. in Educational Administration ____

17. Have you enrolled in Educational Administration courses at a university during the current year?

1. No ____ 31
2. Yes, 1983-84 Winter Session ____
3. Yes, 1983 Summer Session ____

Office Use Only

OPINIONS

18.(a) Do you believe that principals should be given a term appointment after which they may be given another term as principal, if their performance has been satisfactory?

1. Yes _____ 2. No _____ 3. Undecided _____ 32

(b) If "Yes", how long do you believe that the term appointment should be? _____ years 33-34

19. In your opinion, what is the desirable number of students in a senior high school (G. 10, G. 11, and G. 12) which would allow for breadth of program, flexibility, efficiency, and effective interaction among administrators, teachers, and students? _____ 35-38

20. In which type of decision-making role do you feel that you are best suited in most situations? 39

1. The principal is responsible and must make decisions independently. _____
2. The principal makes decisions after consultation with appropriate personnel. _____
3. The principal is a member of an administrative team; decisions are made by the team. _____
4. The principal makes decisions jointly with all certificated staff. _____
5. Other (please specify).

____

21. What are the three most supportive influences which help you realize the goals that you have set as a principal?

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____

Office
Use Only

22. What are the three strongest constraints preventing you from realizing the goals that you have set as a principal?

1. ____

2. ____

3. ____

23. In your opinion, what will be the impact of the new 1983-84 G. 12 achievement examinations upon your role as a principal?

ADMINISTRATIVE TASKS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Please rate your level of involvement in each of the areas listed below, according to the following scale:

High	Medium	Low	None
4	3	2	1

Circle the selected number.

						Office Use Only
1.	Summative (formal) evaluation of teachers	4	3	2	1	40
2.	Formative (developmental) evaluation of teachers	4	3	2	1	41
3.	Hiring of teachers	4	3	2	1	42
4.	Development of curricula/programs	4	3	2	1	43
5.	Evaluation of instructional programs	4	3	2	1	44
6.	Management of instructional resources	4	3	2	1	45
7.	Management of non-instructional resources	4	3	2	1	46
8.	Development of school budget	4	3	2	1	47
9.	Management of school finances	4	3	2	1	48
10.	Operation of school building--physical aspects	4	3	2	1	49
11.	Supervision of student behavior	4	3	2	1	50
12.	Maintenance of student records	4	3	2	1	51
13.	Development of school-community relations	4	3	2	1	52
14.	Development of system-wide policies at the district/division/county level	4	3	2	1	53

JOB SATISFACTION

Please rate your degree of satisfaction according to the following scale:

Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied
6	5	4	3	2	1

Circle the selected number.

			Office Use Only
Working Conditions			
1. The way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in your school system	6 5 4	3 2 1	6
2. The salary you receive	6 5 4	3 2 1	7
3. Fringe benefits under the contract	6 5 4	3 2 1	8
4. Quality of custodial services in your school	6 5 4	3 2 1	9
5. The number of hours you are required to work	6 5 4	3 2 1	10
6. Your physical working conditions	6 5 4	3 2 1	11
7. Availability of clerical staff to assist you	6 5 4	3 2 1	12
Personnel-Related Matters			
8. Your working relationships with teachers	6 5 4	3 2 1	13
9. Your social relationships with teachers	6 5 4	3 2 1	14
10. The teaching competence of your teachers	6 5 4	3 2 1	15
11. The competence of your teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms	6 5 4	3 2 1	16
12. The attitudes of your teachers toward change	6 5 4	3 2 1	17
13. Your relationships with students	6 5 4	3 2 1	18

JOB SATISFACTION (continued)

Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied
6	5	4	3	2	1

			Office Use Only
14. The attitudes of your students toward education	6 5 4	3 2 1	19
15. Morale of your staff	6 5 4	3 2 1	20
16. Student "spirit" in your school	6 5 4	3 2 1	21
Role-Related Matters			
17. Your freedom to introduce changes into the school program	6 5 4	3 2 1	22
18. Your freedom to allocate teaching assignments	6 5 4	3 2 1	23
19. Your involvement in hiring teachers for your school	6 5 4	3 2 1	24
20. Authority associated with the principal's position	6 5 4	3 2 1	25
21. Your involvement in budget preparation	6 5 4	3 2 1	26
District-Related Matters			
22. Your relationship with your superintendent	6 5 4	3 2 1	27
23. Your relationship with other central office staff members	6 5 4	3 2 1	28
24. Your involvement in decision-making at the district/division/county level	6 5 4	3 2 1	29
25. Availability of useful advice to assist you with problems you encounter	6 5 4	3 2 1	30
26. Opportunities for useful in-service education for you	6 5 4	3 2 1	31
27. Expectations of the school board for you as principal	6 5 4	3 2 1	32

JOB SATISFACTION (continued)

Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied
6	5	4	3	2	1

			Office Use Only
28. The methods used to evaluate principals	6 5 4	3 2 1	33
29. Attitudes of your school board members toward teachers and administrators	6 5 4	3 2 1	34
Occupation-Related Matters			
30. Attitudes of parents toward your school	6 5 4	3 2 1	35
31. Your social position in the community	6 5 4	3 2 1	36
32. Your sense of accomplishment as an administrator	6 5 4	3 2 1	37
33. Recognition by others of your work	6 5 4	3 2 1	38
34. The effect of the job on your personal life	6 5 4	3 2 1	39
35. Opportunities for advancement as an administrator	6 5 4	3 2 1	40
Overall Job Satisfaction			
36. Your overall feeling of satisfaction with your job	6 5 4	3 2 1	41

SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

Please rate the effectiveness of your senior high school according to the following scale:

Highly Effective	Moderately Effective	Slightly Effective	Slightly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Highly Ineffective
6	5	4	3	2	1

Circle the selected number.

				Office Use Only
1.	Its effectiveness in preparing students to be responsible citizens	6 5 4	3 2 1	42
2.	Its effectiveness in preparing students for employment after they have completed their senior high school program	6 5 4	3 2 1	43
3.	Its effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in mathematics	6 5 4	3 2 1	44
4.	Its effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in language (official language of instruction)	6 5 4	3 2 1	45
5.	Its effectiveness in preparing students to achieve successfully in post-secondary institutions	6 5 4	3 2 1	46
6.	Its effectiveness in providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities for students	6 5 4	3 2 1	47
7.	Its effectiveness in communicating clear, acceptable, school-wide goals	6 5 4	3 2 1	48
8.	Its effectiveness in linking the curriculum to the school-wide goals	6 5 4	3 2 1	49
9.	The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude	6 5 4	3 2 1	50
10.	The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in providing a safe, orderly environment for students	6 5 4	3 2 1	51
11.	The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in adapting to change involving new policies and/or procedures	6 5 4	3 2 1	52

SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS (continued)

Highly Effective	Moderately Effective	Slightly Effective	Slightly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Highly Ineffective
6	5	4	3	2	1

			Office Use Only
12. The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies	6 5 4	3 2 1	53
13. The effectiveness of teachers in evaluating students according to clearly defined standards or expectations	6 5 4	3 2 1	54
14. The effectiveness of formal communication between teachers and parents	6 5 4	3 2 1	55
15. The overall effectiveness of your school	6 5 4	3 2 1	56

16. In your opinion, what are the three most important indicators (from those above or others) of the effectiveness of a senior high school?

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____

LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

Please rate your own effectiveness as a leader according to the following scale:

Highly Effective	Moderately Effective	Slightly Effective	Slightly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Highly Ineffective
6	5	4	3	2	1

Circle the selected number.

				Office Use Only
1.	Your effectiveness in directing the efforts of teachers toward school goals	6 5 4	3 2 1	57
2.	Your effectiveness in working with teachers and in-school administrators either to change or develop policies	6 5 4	3 2 1	58
3.	Your effectiveness in providing a secure, stable work environment for students and teachers	6 5 4	3 2 1	59
4.	Your effectiveness in adapting policies and procedures to accommodate change initiated by the external environment	6 5 4	3 2 1	60
5.	Your effectiveness in coping with uncertainty and conflict	6 5 4	3 2 1	61
6.	Your effectiveness in making decisions that are timely, appropriate and acceptable	6 5 4	3 2 1	62
7.	Your effectiveness in coordinating and integrating the activities of various groups and departments	6 5 4	3 2 1	63
8.	Your effectiveness in improving the performance of teachers	6 5 4	3 2 1	64
9.	Your effectiveness in improving the morale of your teaching staff	6 5 4	3 2 1	65
10.	Your effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers	6 5 4	3 2 1	66
11.	Your overall effectiveness as a leader	6 5 4	3 2 1	67

PRINCIPAL'S LEVEL OF INFLUENCE

According to the following scale, rate your level of influence that you derive from the following bases:

High Level of Influence	Moderate Level of Influence	Slight Level of Influence	No Influence
4	3	2	1

Circle the selected number.		Office Use Only
1. The influence derived from the authority of your position as principal	4 3 2 1	68
2. The influence derived from your personal qualities and characteristics	4 3 2 1	69
3. The influence derived from your technical knowledge about education (teaching/learning)	4 3 2 1	70
4. The influence derived from your expertise as an administrator	4 3 2 1	71
5. The influence derived from your ability to innovate or be creative	4 3 2 1	72
6. The influence derived from your willingness to recognize or acknowledge the efforts and achievements of teachers and students	4 3 2 1	73
7. The influence derived from techniques that you use to encourage teachers and students to meet certain standards of performance	4 3 2 1	74
8. Your overall level of influence as a principal	4 3 2 1	75

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

Please add any comments that you wish to make on the topics of job satisfaction, leader effectiveness, level of influence, and school effectiveness, as these relate to the role of senior high school principals.

APPENDIX B

REQUEST FOR ENDORSEMENT BY SUPERINTENDENTS

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Department of Educational Administration
EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241

29 September 1983

I am conducting a study to obtain information about how principals of senior high schools in Alberta feel about their work. This study builds upon and partly replicates earlier studies conducted by staff and graduate students in this department. The purpose is to obtain perceptions of senior high school principals about (1) their job satisfaction, (2) the effectiveness of their schools, (3) their influence and effectiveness as leaders, and (4) their involvement in administrative tasks. Questionnaires will be mailed to all 156 principals of senior high schools and combined junior-senior high schools.

I hope that data collection will be completed by early November 1983, and that a final report will be completed by late May 1984. A summary report will be mailed to all principals who complete and return questionnaires.

An Advisory Committee of the following people is assisting with this study:

Dr. J. S. Hrabi, Assistant Deputy-Minister, Alberta Education;
Dr. N. P. Hrynyk, Associate Executive Secretary, Alberta Teachers' Association;
Dr. G. J. Rancier, Superintendent, County of Strathcona; and
Drs. E. W. Ratsoy and K. L. Ward, of this Department.

I am also being assisted in this study by Mr. James Gunn, who is pursuing doctoral studies here while on leave from his position as principal of a G7-12 school with 1,250 pupils in Nova Scotia. Mr. Gunn will use some of the data in his doctoral dissertation. Later he would like to interview about 10 principals in order to obtain further insight into how senior high school principals feel about their work and to gain greater understanding of the operation of high schools in Alberta.

I understand that you do not require that formal approval be sought for studies such as this to be carried out in your school system. However, I thought it appropriate to inform you of my intentions, to seek your support for the study, and to obtain your approval if this is necessary.

Yours sincerely,

E. A. Holdaway
Professor

APPENDIX C

COVERING LETTER TO PRINCIPALS, FOLLOW-UP LETTER AND POSTCARDS

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

19 October 1983

Your assistance is requested in completing the enclosed questionnaire. The purpose of this study is to ascertain how principals of senior high schools in Alberta feel about their work. It builds upon, and in part replicates, earlier studies which have been conducted by staff and graduate students in this Department. The questions relate to your tasks and responsibilities, your job satisfaction, your perceptions of your effectiveness and that of your school, and your level of influence.

An Advisory Committee of the following people is assisting with this study:

Dr. J. S. Hrabi, Assistant Deputy-Minister, Alberta Education;
Dr. N. P. Hrynyk, Associate Executive Secretary, Alberta Teachers' Association;
Dr. G. J. Rancier, Superintendent, County of Strathcona; and
Drs. E. W. Ratsoy and K. L. Ward of this Department.

To ensure anonymity of response, would you please (1) complete the questionnaire and return it in the enclosed stamped addressed envelope, and (2) return the stamped addressed numbered postcard as a separate piece of mail. This will allow me to know that you have returned the questionnaire without knowing which questionnaire is yours.

I am also being assisted in this study by Mr. James Gunn, who is pursuing doctoral studies here while on leave from his position as a principal of a G7-12 school with 1,250 pupils in Nova Scotia. Mr. Gunn will use some of the data in his doctoral dissertation. Later he will be interviewing about 10 principals in order to obtain further insight into how high school principals feel about their work and to gain greater understanding of senior high schools in Alberta. If you are willing to be interviewed and to have Mr. Gunn visit your school, would you please record this on the numbered postcard.

A report will be mailed to all principals who complete the questionnaire.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

E. A. Holdaway
Professor

7-104, EDUCATION NORTH, EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE (403) 432-5241

Respondent Number ....

☐ I have completed and mailed the questionnaire on the role and satisfaction of senior high school principals in Alberta.

☐ I am willing to be interviewed.

Please mail this card at the same time that you mail the completed questionnaire.

Thank you for your co-operation.

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

15 November 1983

On 19 October 1983 I mailed to you a questionnaire dealing with the role and job satisfaction of senior high school principals, together with a stamped return envelope and separate postcard. I have not yet received your postcard to indicate whether you have completed the questionnaire.

If you have not already done so, I would very much appreciate your completing the questionnaire. A high rate of return will make the data representative of senior high school principals in Alberta and, therefore more valuable in understanding the nature of your work role.

Would you also please complete the enclosed, stamped postcard and mail it to me.

Thank you very much for your assistance. A copy of the report will be mailed to all principals who complete the questionnaire.

Yours sincerely

E. A. Holdaway
Professor

Enc.

7-104, EDUCATION NORTH, EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE (403) 432-5241

Respondent Number ....

Please check one of the following responses concerning the questionnaire on the role and satisfaction of senior high school principals in Alberta.

☐ I have completed and mailed the questionnaire and card.

☐ I have completed and mailed the questionnaire but **not** the card.

☐ I did not receive the questionnaire.

☐ I have received the questionnaire and card and shall complete and mail the questionnaire.

☐ I shall not complete the questionnaire.

THANK YOU

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interview Schedule

Eighty-eight (88) percent of the high school principals in Alberta completed the questionnaire, "Perceptions of Senior High School Principals of Selected Aspects of their Role and their Job Satisfaction." The following questions were derived from the analysis of the questionnaire data, with the purpose of providing further insight into the results of this analysis.

Please answer each question freely or openly. Anonymity is guaranteed: at no time will your identity be revealed by the interviewer. Also, if any question is unclear to you, I will try to clarify it for you; as we go through the interview I will briefly explain the reason for asking some of the questions so that you understand the nature of those questions.

Questions

1. In the three parts of this question, I am seeking more information to better understand the nature of overall job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

   (a) What give you the most satisfaction as a high school principal?

   (b) What gives you the most dissatisfaction as a high school principal?

   (c) In the questionnaire, principals were asked to rate their level of satisfaction on thirty-five items; one of these was "Your sense of accomplishment as an administrator." In the statistical analysis, "sense of accomplishment as an administrator" proved to be the strongest predictor of overall job satisfaction. Therefore, because of its importance, I am trying to understand more clearly what sense of accomplishment as an administrator means to principals. Would you describe what it means to you?

2. My study is about leadership, among other variables. I have one understanding of leadership from my study of the literature but I am not sure if the respondents to my questionnaire view leadership in the same way that I do. Would you describe what leadership, as an aspect of your role means to you? Would you describe the qualities, characteristics, of behavior you would hope to demonstrate as an effective leader?

3. In some respects it is easy to distinguish between leader effectiveness and school effectiveness, two of the major variables in this study. In other respects it is not easy to view them separately; as variables or concepts they seem to closely related. I hope to increase my understanding of what principals believe about leader effectiveness and school effectiveness, and the possible relationship between them. To what degree do you believe that your effectiveness as a leader is an indicator of the effectiveness of your school?

4. In my study I have assumed that job satisfaction and morale are two different things; job satisfaction is a characteristic of an individual and morale is a characteristic of a group or the whole staff. I would like to ask you about these two variables or concepts, one at a time, in relation to leader effectiveness and school effectiveness.
   (a) It is possible that job satisfaction of individual teachers in your school is an indicator of your leader effectiveness and/or the effectiveness of the school. To what degree do you believe that the job satisfaction of individual teachers is an indicator of your

effectiveness as a leader?

(b) To what degree do you believe that their job satisfaction is an indicator of the effectiveness of the school?

(c) Can you say which it more strongly indicates, leader effectiveness or school effectiveness?

(d) Similarly, staff morale may be an indicator of your effectiveness as a leader and/or the effectiveness of the school. To what degree do you believe that staff morale is an indicator of your effectiveness as a leader?

(e) To what degree do you believe that it is an indicator of the effectiveness of the school?

(f) Can you say which it more strongly indicates, leader effectiveness or school effectiveness?

5. Being a principal requires that you have a certain level of influence with teachers, students, parents, that is, all groups with which you must work. What contributes most to your level of influence as a principal?

APPENDIX E

PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF RESPONSES RATING SATISFACTION WITH JOB FACETS AND CRITERIA OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS, LEADER EFFECTIVENESS AND LEVEL OF INFLUENCE

Table 1

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Levels of Satisfaction of Principals with Facets of Their Job

Facet	Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied	N	Mean	Percent Satisfied
Working Conditions									
1. The way in which consultation between board and teachers concerning working conditions is conducted in your school system	11.5	31.3	18.3	16.8	11.5	10.7	131	3.82	61.1
2. The salary you receive	18.0	52.6	13.5	10.5	3.8	1.5	133	4.66	84.2
3. Fringe benefits under the contract	17.3	53.4	13.5	10.5	3.0	2.3	133	4.65	84.2
4. Quality of custodial services in your school	37.4	33.6	9.9	12.2	5.3	1.5	131	4.80	80.9
5. The number of hours you are required to work	16.0	44.3	17.6	10.7	8.4	3.1	131	4.40	77.9
6. Your physical working conditions	30.1	40.6	9.0	15.0	4.5	0.8	133	4.74	79.7
7. Availability of clerical staff to assist you	45.1	29.3	6.8	8.3	6.8	3.8	133	4.87	81.2

Table 1

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Levels of Satisfaction of Principals with Facets of Their Job

Facet	Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied	N	Mean	Percent Satisfied
Personnel-Related Matters									
8. Your working relationships with teachers	51.1	43.6	3.8	1.5			133	5.44	98.5
9. Your social relationships with teachers	33.1	50.4	15.0	1.5			133	5.15	98.5
10. The teaching competence of your teachers	30.8	57.9	7.5	3.0	0.8		133	5.15	96.2
11. The competence of your teachers in handling professional duties external to their classrooms	21.8	45.1	18.8	11.3	2.3	0.8	133	4.71	85.7
12. The attitudes of your teachers toward change	15.8	43.6	23.3	13.5	3.8		133	4.54	82.7
13. Your relationships with students	44.4	48.1	6.0	1.5			133	5.35	98.5
14. The attitudes of your students toward education	7.5	49.6	26.3	11.3	5.3		133	4.43	83.5
15. Morale of your staff	28.6	45.9	19.5	4.5	1.5		133	4.96	94.0
16. Student "spirit" in your school	13.5	51.9	24.1	9.8	0.8		133	4.68	89.5

Table 1

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Levels of Satisfaction of Principals with Facets of Their Job

Facet	Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied	N	Mean	Percent Satisfied
Role-Related Matters									
17. Your freedom to introduce changes into the school program	27.1	43.6	14.3	9.0	4.5	1.5	133	4.75	85.0
18. Your freedom to allocate teaching assignments	56.4	30.8	9.8	1.5		1.5	133	5.38	97.0
19. Your involvement in hiring teachers for your school	42.9	29.3	10.5	6.8	5.3	5.3	133	4.82	82.7
20. Authority associated with the principal's position	42.1	35.3	12.0	7.5	2.3	0.8	133	5.05	89.5
21. Your involvement in budget preparation	32.6	33.3	18.2	9.1	3.8	3.0	132	4.73	84.1

Table 1

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Levels of Satisfaction of Principals with Facets of Their Job

Facet	Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied	N	Mean	Percent Satisfied
District-Related Matters									
22. Your relationship with your superintendent	42.4	31.8	10.6	6.8	6.1	2.3	132	4.91	84.8
23. Your relationship with other central office staff members	38.3	36.1	12.8	8.3	3.0	1.5	133	4.94	87.2
24. Your involvement in decision-making at the district/division/county level	18.0	33.8	18.0	15.0	10.5	4.5	133	4.20	69.9
25. Availability of useful advice to assist you with problems you encounter	22.6	37.6	22.6	8.3	4.5	4.5	133	4.52	82.7
26. Opportunities for useful in-service education for you	17.3	33.8	24.1	11.3	7.5	6.0	133	4.24	75.2
27. Expectations of the school board for you as principal	22.0	37.1	26.5	9.8	4.5		132	4.62	85.6
28. Methods used to evaluate principals	7.3	40.7	30.1	11.4	7.3	3.3	123	4.20	78.0
29. Attitudes of your school board members toward teachers and administrators	12.1	33.3	25.8	12.9	7.6	8.3	132	4.05	71.2

Table 1

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Levels of Satisfaction of Principals with Facets of Their Job

Facet	Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied	N	Mean	Percent Satisfied
Occupation-Related Matters									
30. Attitudes of parents toward your school	25.8	46.2	22.0	5.3	0.8		132	4.91	93.9%
31. Your social position in the community	33.3	49.2	15.9	0.8	0.8		132	5.14	98.5
32. Your sense of accomplishment as an administrator	29.3	48.1	14.3	6.0	2.3		133	4.96	91.7
33. Recognition by others of your work	23.3	48.1	19.5	7.5	0.8	0.8	133	4.84	91.0
34. The effect of the job on your personal life	21.1	39.8	15.0	15.0	6.0	3.0	133	4.46	75.9
35. Opportunities for advancement as an administrator	23.5	39.4	22.7	8.3	3.8	2.3	132	4.64	85.6

Table 1

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Levels of Satisfaction of Principals with Facets of Their Job

Facet	Highly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Highly Dissatisfied	N	Mean	Percent Satisfied
Overall Job Satisfaction									
36. Your overall feeling of satisfaction with your job	39.1	45.1	12.8	3.0			133	5.20	97.0

Table 2

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Principals' Perceptions of Effectiveness of Their Schools

Criterion	Highly Effective	Moderately Effective	Slightly Effective	Slightly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Highly Ineffective	N	Mean	Percent Effective
1. Its effectiveness in preparing students to be responsible citizens	10.5	63.9	22.6	2.3	0.8		133	4.81	97.0
2. Its effectiveness in preparing students for employment after they have completed their senior high school program	9.8	43.9	35.6	7.6	2.3	0.8	132	4.49	89.4
3. Its effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in mathematics	21.2	53.8	22.0	3.0			132	4.93	97.0
4. Its effectiveness in providing students with satisfactory skills in language (official language of instruction)	19.7	57.6	16.7	6.1			132	4.91	93.9
5. Its effectiveness in preparing students to achieve successfully in post-secondary institutions	40.9	45.5	9.1	3.0		1.5	132	5.20	95.5

Table 2

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Principals' Perceptions of Effectiveness of Their Schools

Criterion	Highly Effective	Moderately Effective	Slightly Effective	Slightly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Highly Ineffective	N	Mean	Percent Effective
6. Its effectiveness in providing worthwhile extra-curricular activities for students	42.1	30.1	20.3	5.3	2.3		133	5.05	92.5
7. Its effectiveness in communicating clear, acceptable, school-wide goals	12.8	52.6	30.8	3.0	0.8		133	4.74	96.2
8. Its effectiveness in linking the curriculum to the school-wide goals	10.5	44.4	39.8	4.5	0.8		133	4.59	94.7
9. The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in demonstrating a professional and caring attitude	32.3	46.6	16.5	3.8	0.8		133	5.06	95.5
10. The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in providing a safe, orderly environment for students	56.4	36.8	6.0	0.8			133	5.49	99.2
11. The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in adapting to change involving new policies and/or procedures	17.3	60.2	18.0	3.8	0.8		133	4.90	95.5

Table 2

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Principals' Perceptions of Effectiveness of Their Schools

Criterion	Highly Effective	Moderately Effective	Slightly Effective	Slightly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Highly Ineffective	N	Mean	Percent Effective
12. The effectiveness of teachers and administrators in handling unexpected overloads of work or emergencies	39.1	48.1	11.3	1.5			133	5.25	98.5
13. The effectiveness of teachers in evaluating students according to clearly defined standards or expectations	18.9	62.1	15.2	3.0	0.8		132	4.96	96.2
14. The effectiveness of formal communication between teachers and parents	9.8	49.6	36.1	3.8	0.8		133	4.64	95.5
15. The overall effectiveness of your school	26.5	64.4	8.3	0.8			132	5.17	99.2

Table 3

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Principals' Perceptions of Their Effectiveness as a Leader

Criterion	Highly Effective	Moderately Effective	Slightly Effective	Slightly Ineffective	Moderately Ineffective	Highly Ineffective	N	Mean	Percent Effective
7. Your effectiveness in coordinating and integrating the activities of various groups and departments	22.7	54.5	21.2	1.5			132	4.99	98.5
8. Your effectiveness in improving the performance of teachers	3.0	48.5	40.9	7.6			132	4.47	92.4
9. Your effectiveness in improving the morale of your teaching staff	22.1	55.0	19.8	3.1			131	4.96	96.9
10. Your effectiveness in increasing the job satisfaction of individual teachers	19.8	52.7	22.1	5.3			131	4.87	94.7
11. Your overall effectiveness as a leader	21.2	65.9	12.9				132	5.08	100.0

Table 3

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Principals' Perceptions of Their Effectiveness as a Leader

Criterion	**Highly Effective**	**Moderately Effective**	**Slightly Effective**	**Slightly Ineffective**	**Moderately Ineffective**	**Highly Ineffective**	**N**	**Mean**	**Percent Effective**
1. Your effectiveness in directing the efforts of teachers toward school goals	7.6	70.5	20.5	1.5			132	4.84	98.5
2. Your effectiveness in working with teachers and in-school administrators either to change or develop policies	31.1	54.5	14.4				132	5.17	100.0
3. Your effectiveness in providing a secure, stable work environment for students and teachers	50.8	41.7	5.3	1.5		0.8	132	5.39	97.7
4. Your effectiveness in adapting policies and procedures to accommodate change initiated by the external environment	27.3	56.1	15.2	1.5			132	5.09	98.5
5. Your effectiveness in coping with uncertainty and conflict	28.8	57.6	12.1	1.5			132	5.14	98.5
6. Your effectiveness in making decisions that are timely, appropriate and acceptable	33.3	59.1	6.8	0.8			132	5.25	99.2

Table 4

Frequency Distribution of Principals' Perceptions of Their Level of Influence

Base of Influence	Level of Influence				N	Mean
	High	Moderate	Slight	None		
1. Influence derived from authority of your position as principal	32.1	51.1	16.0	0.8	131	3.15
2. Influence derived from your personal qualities and characteristics	49.2	50.0	0.8		130	3.49
3. The influence derived from your technical knowledge about education (teaching/learning)	22.1	70.2	7.6		131	3.15
4. The influence derived from your expertise as an administrator	41.2	52.7	6.1		131	3.35
5. The influence derived from your ability to innovate or be creative	24.4	51.9	22.9	0.8	131	3.00
6. Influence derived from your willingness to recognize or acknowledge the efforts and achievements of teachers and students	55.7	40.5	3.8		131	3.52
7. Influence derived from techniques that you use to encourage teachers and students to meet certain standards of performance	20.0	69.2	10.8		130	3.09
8. Your overall level of influence as a principal	37.2	62.8			129	3.37